



*Organizational Lifecycle and Happiness at Work:
Investigating Best-fit for Employees based on their Locus of
Control Expectancy*

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1 Executive Summary

More than 300 million people are estimated to be living with depression (World Health Organization, 2017). Several fields of studies can address the problem: being a mental issue, the field of psychology can contribute to the research; or medicine, as chronic depression can be pharmaceutically addressed. Confirmed to be the leading cause of work incapacity (World Health Organization, 2017), depression is a serious, current issue, with increasing repercussions in the future for organizations, industries, and economies worldwide. Additionally, “the new millennium goal is to be happy at work”, and it’s popularity infers that “it is very likely that there exists profound sadness at work” (Moccia, 2016, p. 144). Unhappiness at work is not merely a drain for the employee, but a significant cost for organizations in areas of: customer relations, staff retention, turnover, performance, and efficiency, to name a few (Blau and Boal 2016; Adler et al. 2006). The impact is such that it is deemed a robust strategy for competitive advantage that is difficult for competitors to copy (Haughey 1997; Achor 2010; Barney 1991; Nienaber and Martins 2014). Job performance of even the clinically improved patients having had suffered from depression remains consistency worse than control groups (D. A. Adler et al., 2006) highlighting the importance of tackling the problem of unhappiness at work. As such, the field of business management can address the problem through the umbrella concept of happiness at work (Fisher, 2010).

The major dispositional contributors to personal level of happiness are: genetic predisposition (Diener, 2013; A. Weiss, Bates, & Luciano, 2008) and psychological traits (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002). Meta-analysis have concluded a significant correlation between constructs of happiness at work and core self-evaluation traits of: self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability (low neuroticism (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001), as have individual empirical studies (Näswall et al. 2005; Rahim and Psenicka 1996; Chen and Silverthorne 2008a; Kirkcaldy and Furnham 1993). However, the question as to whether same organizational characteristics can act to enhance or regress the level of happiness at work of individuals based on their differences in employees’ locus of control expectancies remains unanswered (Kroeck, Bullough, & Reynolds, 2010). For example, a stable industry environment was seen appropriate for internals, while a dynamic industry more suitable for externals due to their abilities in a chance-dependent scenario (Wijbenga and Witteloostuijn 2007). As such, the need for a correlation study of locus of control expectancy under different organizational characteristics – an investigation of person-organization fit based on locus of control – is evident.

Nonetheless, there exists a problem of consensus, and measurement of happiness at work (Wesarat, Yazam Sharif, & Abdul Majid, 2014). A host of constructs operate within the umbrella of the concept of happiness at work. Review of the literature and empirical evidence led Fisher (2010) to suggest use of: job satisfaction (H. M. Weiss, 2002), affective organizational commitment (Mowday, 1998) and engagement (Kahn, 1990) to be collectively used for empirical testing for the umbrella concept of happiness at work.

A major contributor to happiness at work is the fit between the employee's personality trait and the work environment, culture and others in the organization, known as person-organization fit or supplementary fit (Lauver and Kristof-Brown 2001). It is found to have significant correlation with constructs such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. These correlate more than the correlations observed between these constructs with person-job fit (Bretz and Judge 1994; Edwards 1991; Kristof 1996; Verquer et al. 2003; Westerman and Cyr 2004), which measures the fit between choice of career, profession or nature of work with the personality of the individual. Therefore, researchers in the field of person-organization fit endorse the area for further research (Judge et al., 2002).

In seeking organizational characteristics for such studies, scholars have criticised researchers for: selection criteria of the organizational environmental characteristics, and omissions of certain characteristics based on practicality concerns (Lofquist and Dawis 1969). Distinct organizational characteristics are identified in studies of organizational development, which investigates changes in organizations, and concludes that organizations follow a set path of development – the organization's lifecycle (French and Bell 1995). Unique organizational characteristics have been generalized in respect of: leadership and management style, employee autonomy, sophistication of human resource, sales drive, cost controls, internal controls, to name a few, at different stages of the organizational lifecycle by different models (Adizes 1979; Quinn and Cameron 1983; Greiner 1998; Blau and Boal 2016; Lester et al. 2003). As researchers argue that different personality traits are optimally suitable for different environments (April and Macdonald 2000), Adizes (1979) identifies different personality characteristics that are suitable for different stages in the organization, though not identifying any specific personality traits. As such, the avenue to test personality trait of locus of control, and which expectancies are best suited at different stages of the organizational lifecycle can add to the models of organizational lifecycle.

The above can be researched by asking the following research question: "Investigating the relationship, between organizational lifecycle and happiness at work for employees with different locus of control expectancies, and its antecedents".

The organizations for this research needed to range from start-ups to those with high levels of bureaucracy to cover the range of positions along the organizational lifecycle (Adizes, 1996; Lester et al., 2003). However, a vast variety of organizations introduces many variables in the organization characteristics, making it difficult to attribute correlations to specific organizational differences, or to the employees' locus of control expectancy. Adizes (1988) regarded new departments to be like new organizations; so, the choice of large organizations with sufficient departments presented an ideal sample for the research. Several locus of control researches are conducted in accounting firms (Prawitt 1995; Tsui and Gul 1996; Brownell 2014; Hyatt and Prawitt 2001; Bernardi 2011; Chen and Silverthorne 2008b). Spector (1988) regarded it conclusive of the importance of locus of control expectancy of the employees to the profession and the accounting firms. Additionally, the researcher's background in and qualifications from the industry would allow for credibility and knowledge to this research (Kirk and Miller 1986). Hence, this

research's ideal sample choice was noted as one of the large accounting firms to conduct this research across departments, locations and geographies in the firm. This research was conducted at one of the big 10 accounting firms (code name: M&Ms) in all 35 departments across South Africa. Though this research has limitations due to white collar, profession-specific sampling, the independence of locus of control across cultures (Lefcourt, 1984) makes it more generalizable.

Aligned to the researcher's philosophical stance: ontology of realism (Gill and Johnson 2010) and epistemology of positivism (Guba and Lincoln 1994), this research's methodology sought valid knowledge through measurements (Giddens, 2008). To ensure that the methodological choice is dictated by the researcher's philosophical stance (Holden and Lynch 2004), the method of research conducted was one of surveys, executed through on-line questionnaires that were developed using validated constructs (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012). Ethical considerations: voluntary completion of the survey, confidentiality and anonymity for the firm and the employees, right to privacy, transparency of use of information provided by the researcher, brief on the study, and ethical clearance sought from the university prior to the field research (Rhodes, 2010; M. Sempu, personal communication, 26 June 2018) were ensured.

Firstly, a questionnaire to assess the position of the department in the business lifecycle was completed by the partners of the firm, to place the department the partner is in-charge of to one of five specific stages of the organizational lifecycle (Lester et al., 2003). Following this, an abbreviated questionnaire to test locus of control (Rotter 1966; Valecha and Ostrom 1974), and constructs contributing to happiness at work (Fisher, 2010), namely: job in general scale for measure of job satisfaction (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989; S. S. Russell et al., 2004), affective organizational commitment (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993) and abbreviated Utrecht work engagement scale of job engagement (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003; Seppälä et al. 2009) was completed by the employees in the departments in a second questionnaire. The choice of the questionnaires was based on reports of high validity, and applicability of 'affect' rather than 'cognitive' measures (Brief and Weiss 2002) to align the questionnaires better with the umbrella concept of happiness at work in communications with Prof. Cynthia D. Fisher (Personal communications, 30 May and 11 June 2018).

To ensure reliability and validity: the response rate, between 57% and 62% achieved, was confirmed to meet the required response rate of 50% for the size of the firm (Leedy and Ormrod 2005), Cronbach's Alpha of 0.84 and 0.95 was confirmed to meet internal validity and reliability requirements (Santos, 1999), 1% significance level correlations between 0.6 and 0.9 among the constructs (Aguinis, Pierce, & Culpepper, 2009) contributing to the umbrella concept of happiness at work were tested to confirm constructs contributed towards the concept of happiness at work (Fisher, 2010), normal distribution of locus of control expectancies in the firm, and lack of correlations (β 0.07 and p-value of 0.2) between locus of control and departments' stage of development to ensure normal distributions across the firm were all tested (Punch, 2014) before data analysis. To enhance robustness, triangulation was sought through

addition of questions to the validated questionnaires of the constructs (Welch & Patton, 1992). The positioning of the department on the organizational lifecycle was suggested to be triangulated with age of the department and employee numbers by Dr. John A. Parnell (Lester and Parnell 2008; Lester et al. 2003; Personal communication 29 May 2018). An open-ended question regarding happiness at work allowed for triangulation of by the respondents with the scores of the respondents on the questionnaires contributing to the concept of happiness at work. It also allowed for depth to this research, and provided voice to the findings from the data, that were used to explore themes that emerged (Saunders et al., 2012) for an inductive study (Lind & Goldkuhl, 2006).

Quantitative analysis for the deductive part of this research entailed testing correlations of each construct using Spearman Rank Order Correlation (Utts and Heckard 2007), as the scales of the independent and dependent variables were not identical, requiring categorization through rank. Data analysis revealed a statistically significant relationship between constructs of stage of development of the department and levels of happiness at work, statistically significant at 5% level for affective job commitment, and job satisfaction, and at 1% level significance for job engagement. Negative correlations indicate a higher level of happiness at work in departments in early stages of development. Nonetheless, β values under 0.2 reveal a weak relationship, meaning that the difference in the level of happiness of employees in early stages of development and those in latter stages of development were not large. Additionally, hierarchical regression was used to verify if the strength of the relationship between organizational lifecycle and happiness at work constructs was enhanced by the introduction of locus of control as a variable in a predictive capacity (Dr. K. Ramaboa, 5 February 2019, Personal Interview). The model's predictability strength is increased by locus of control hence concluded as a moderator to the relationship.

The data was split into respondents based on their locus of control expectancies in several ways to check if the relationship varied based on the respondents' expectancy, essentially checking how the trait acts as a moderator to the relationship (Sprung and Jex 2012). Splitting the respondents based on their locus of control expectancies (0-4 for internals, 4-7 for balanced locus of control expectancy, and 7-11 for externals) revealed strengthened relationship for internals to a moderate level (β between 0.20 and ± 0.35) at 5% significance level between job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.21$) and job engagement ($\beta = 0.21$, driven by vigor $\beta = 0.23$) and the department's position on the business lifecycle. Similarly, for externals, the relationship strengthened to a strong level (β between 0.35 and ± 0.50) at 1% significance level between all constructs of happiness at work (job satisfaction $\beta = 0.36$, job commitment $\beta = 0.37$, and job engagement $\beta = 0.35$, driven by vigor $\beta = 0.36$, dedication $\beta = 0.3$ at 1% significance, and absorption $\beta = 0.3$ at 5% significance level) and the department's position on the department on the organizational lifecycle.

The statistical findings are explained using understanding of different locus of control expectancies. Externals with their belief that their happiness is dependent on factors outside their personal control (Carrim, 2006), either with powerful others, chance or luck, fate or attributed to complexity of the world (Brownell, 2014) are inclined to be sensitive to external forces for personal level of happiness in any

environment, including at work. It therefore explains high correlation between position of the department on the organizational lifecycle and externals' level of happiness at work, highlighting their sensitivity to the departmental characteristics to their happiness at work. Similarly, though to a less extent, the preference towards earlier stages in the organizational lifecycle persists for internals. Departments in early stages of development possibly allow internals the chance for taking control (Anderson and Schneier 1978). Additionally, internals interpret reinforcements they receive as contingent upon their own actions (Lee-Kelley, 2006). It can be expected that consequences to internals' actions are increasingly subdued in larger departments, or in departments which are more structured that work efficiently due to policies, procedures and processes. This can be regarded by internals as the department's failure to provide them with the reinforcement of their actions that they anticipate due to their expectancy. This finding correlates well with the reported preference of internals to an unstructured audit environment (Hyatt & Prawitt, 2001). This dependency on external environment is higher for externals than internals as internals are seen as 'masters of their own fate', while externality is related to helplessness, learnt helplessness (Peterson, Maier, & Seligman, 1993) extending to hopelessness (Lefcourt, 1976b) and were found to be more dependent on the department's environment. In fact, the higher the score on the I-E scale (Valecha & Ostrom, 1974), the stronger the correlation was found for the relationship between organizational lifecycle and happiness at work (7.6).

The interaction of the two polar opposites of internality and externality which leads to a bi-local (Torun and April 2006) or a balanced locus of control expectancy (April, Dharani, & Peters, 2012) is not well understood (S. Connolly, 1980). Nonetheless, the resilience of a balanced locus of control is evident that showed no correlation between the position of the department in the organizational lifecycle and any construct of happiness at work. This is supported by April et al.'s (2012) research that found subjective well-being measured through satisfaction with life scale (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985) is highest for those with a balanced locus of control expectancy, possibly explaining it through a resilience of the expectancy to the work environment for personal happiness.

Exploring themes emerging from the open-ended question from the respondents revealed the most frequent comment was in respect of 'workload' – a known stressor in the workplace (Gray-Stanley et al., 2010). This was followed by 'leadership' matters or supervisory concerns, 'training' or learning opportunities, and the 'team's contribution' to a respondent's happiness at work. Additionally, 'career' progression, 'recognition' and 'pay' concerns, and also comments applauding the respondents' own 'personality' for their level of happiness at work were noted as generalized themes. These findings align well with current research on the enablers of happiness at work (Davila, 2005; van Saane, 2003). As such, discussion for the topic is more relevant when segregating the comments from internals, balanced expectancy and externals to contribute to new knowledge creation (Corley & Gioia, 2011).

The level of importance of leadership came across higher for externals and internals than for those with a balanced locus of control expectancy. This is possibly explained by the fact that individuals with an

external locus of control expectancy depend on powerful others; thus, allowing their level of happiness to also be dictated by leaders, seen as powerful others in their spectrum and drivers of their destiny (Rotter and Mulry 1965). On the contrary, internals regarded as harnessing leadership qualities in plentiful Western academic literature (Hiers and Heckel 1977), also ranked leadership to be of great importance to their level of happiness at work. Further analysis reveals a difference in nature of comments on the theme, with externals showing dependency on leadership for happiness at work, while internals expressing demands from the leaders. It appears that a balance of the two expectancies allows for a limitation to dependence on the leader, and also limits towards the demands from them, making it less important an enabler to their level of happiness at work.

The importance of training and learning from the job to happiness at work is evident in comments from all expectancies. However, internals with lack of trust which leads to an inability to benefit from others' strengths, and difficulties working in groups and with other people due to possible narcissistic behaviour (April, Dharani, & Peters, 2011) express their frustration of lack of training of others, while externals and those with a balanced locus of control expectancy draw a clear link between self-learning and their own happiness at work, consistent with current literature (Yan and Turban 2009).

In reference to career, the concerns raised relate to being placed in a department which does not fulfil the individual's future aspirations. Due to the lack of proactivity associated with externals (Lefcourt, 1976a), the comments are only observed from employees with an internal or a balanced locus of control expectancy.

Concerns about pay arose from internals and externals, but not from those with a balanced locus of control expectancy (Staw and Ross 1985). Once again, analysis of the responses reveals a difference in the nature of the concern by the two opposing poles of the expectancy. The importance of pay as a response to their work is demanded by internals (Klein and Wasserstein-Warnet 1999; Lee-Kelley 2006), while comments regarding pay from externals are associated with the need to fulfil their financial or work-life balance needs (Rotter and Mulry 1965; April et al. 2011).

Similar to pay, the attribution of happiness at work to one's own personality is only noted from internals and externals. There are mild hints that internals allude towards higher self-esteem (McCullough, Ashbridge, & Pegg, 1994), while externals appear to present it as learnt behaviour (Bandura, 1978) rather than a fundamental core belief or personality trait (Lefcourt, 1976a).

The research provides self-learning for the researcher and other individuals about which stage on the organizational lifecycle is best suited based on their locus of control expectancy, and some insight into aspects of the departmental environment which are responsible for of these. Functional use of the findings can assist recruitment, placements in departments, or other matters of human resource management ensure happiness at work to assist in reducing incapacity at work due to depression (Ervasti et al., 2015). Academically, this research challenges the notion that there is a 'one-size-fit-all' scenario and that certain

attributes of the work environment are suitable for all personality types. Complexification (Shepherd and Suddaby 2016) of the business lifecycle model, by adding the dimension of locus of control to the theory, provides another opportunity for theoretical contribution. Lastly, the researcher hopes to either enforce or challenge linearity assumption of the locus of control construct (Spector, 1988), and scholars regarding internality as universally desirable (Sprung and Jex 2012).

The research contributes to theory in several ways. Firstly, it presents complexification of the organizational lifecycle in two ways: introduction of the importance of locus of control to different stages of the lifecycle, and secondly by introducing the concepts of happiness at work along the different stages of the organizational lifecycle. The research further challenges the generalized notion of internals to be most suited to organizations. Additionally, the research challenges the notion that externals are more suitable to organizational characteristics that are associated with latter stages of the organizational lifecycle. From the research findings, the research also contributes to theory of locus of control by quantitatively confirming the presence of a position in the middle of the Internal-External (I-E) scale. Lastly, due to the findings where negative correlations between stages of the organizational lifecycle and constructs operating within the umbrella concept of happiness at work for internals and externals, the lack of a correlation for those with a balanced locus of control expectancy challenges the linearity assumption of the I-E scale in respect of affect.

2 Problem Addressed

At the heart of every research project is the problem (Leedy and Ormrod 2005), and “our theories should be problem driven” (Corley and Gioia 2011, p.22), seeking resolutions of the problems faced by the world, valid for the age in which this research is being conducted. Depression (major depressive disorder or clinical depression) is an increasingly common, but serious, mood disorder. It causes severe symptoms that affect how you feel, think, and handle daily activities, such as sleeping, eating, or working. To be diagnosed with depression, the symptoms must be present for at least two weeks (National Institute of Mental Health, 2016). In 2005, the World Health Organization had estimated depression to become the second leading cause of work incapacity by 2020; however, depression topped the list worldwide prematurely, in 2017, having increased 18% between 2005 and 2017 (World Health Organization, 2017). As the leading cause of incapacity to work now, with an alarming record of growth, the seriousness of the problem cannot be underestimated. Cost-of-illness research has shown that depression is associated with an enormous economic burden (P. S. Wang, Simon, & Kessler, 2003).

Several fields of study can address the problem, ranging from psychology (as it is a mental health issue) to medicine (as it can be pharmaceutically addressed). Since multiple dimensions of job performance are found to be impaired by depression; such as, managing mental-interpersonal, time, and output tasks (D. A. Adler et al., 2006), with the impact persisting much after symptoms have improved (Ervasti et al., 2015),

efforts to reduce work-impairment due to depression are needed (D. A. Adler et al., 2006), as the impact is direct, and hard hitting for businesses and organizations. D. A. Adler et al. (2006, p. 1569) state: “the job performance of even the ‘clinically improved’ subset of depressed patients remained consistently worse than the control groups” highlighting the need to address the problem before it arises through enhancing happiness at work.

In the field of organizational management, investigating constructs operating in the work environment that oppose depression, fundamentally happiness at work, is one approach to resolving the problem of unhappiness at work. Constructs contributing to the concept of happiness at work are defined by Fisher (2010) to include: job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment and job engagement. These constructs’ ability to assist with the problem and their inter-relationship with depression is reviewed below:

A vast number of studies have suggested a link between job satisfaction levels and health, though the sizes of the relationships reported vary widely (Faragher, 2005). In respect of mental health, and depression in particular, job characteristics (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback) predicted job satisfaction, as well as stress and depression (Steyn and Vawda 2015). Stressors (Gray-Stanley et al., 2010), such as workload and student behaviour were significant predictors of depression in teachers (Ferguson, Frost, & Hall, 2012). Job satisfaction and self-employment relationship were explained by Bradley and Roberts (2004) through higher levels of self-efficacy and by lower levels of depression. As such, contribution of work to depression through job satisfaction is largely agreed upon, through different catalysts existing at the environmental level, or organizational level, specific events contribution, as well as job specific scenarios exist (Näswall et al., 2005).

Engagement, defined as the opposite of burn-out (Leiter and Maslach 2017), is so closely related to depression that researchers have tested if burn-out is a form of depression. Bianchi et al. (2015, p. 28) reviewed 92 studies regarding the issue of burnout-depression overlap to conclude that the distinction between burnout and depression is ‘conceptually fragile’. It is notably unclear how the state of burnout (i.e., the end stage of the burnout process) is conceived to differ from clinical depression. Schonfeld and Bianchi (2016) state that burnout is a form of depression, given the magnitude of burnout-depression overlap, and recommend that treatments for depression could help workers identified as ‘burned out’.

In reference to affective organizational commitment, which attributes commitment to an organization to passion towards the work or organization, the relationship is seen to be linked through engagement. The extent of engagement or burn-out predicted organizational commitment, whereas job demands were found to predict burnout over time which, in turn, predicted future depression (Hakanen, Schaufeli, & Ahola, 2008). Despite the above correlations suggesting profound relationships to the leading cause of incapacity to work, the term, ‘happiness at work’ is not extensively used in academic research, hence providing relevance and importance of research in the field.

Moccia (2016, p. 144) presents an alternative reason for addressing the concept of happiness at work by stating that: “the new millennium goal is to be happy at work”. Therefore, it is expected that research in the subject will continue, leading to new and more relevant discoveries that are more likely to be implemented in practice. Theoretical examination of the reasons for the above are lagging in literature, but as the world progresses through stages of development, Beck and Cowan (1996) in their book ‘Spiral Dynamics’ claim the world to have progressed to an era which they refer to as the ‘Green MEME’. This is defined by the authors as an era where the emotional needs are increasing in priority over other aspects that were the driving force for the previous MEME. The change is said to be driven by: loneliness, tiredness of competition, questioning of the definition of progress, and recognition of damage to external parties and feeling guilt due to it (Beck and Cowan 1996). This presents a possible reason for the heightened interest in the demand for happiness at work by the millennials. As societal concern shifts from financial survival towards quality of life issues, both in and outside of the workplace, scholarly interest in employee well-being too has risen greatly in recent years. “This greater attention to the antecedents and outcomes of employee well-being, such as job satisfaction, work engagement, and job burnout amongst others, is reflected in the proliferation of theories, constructs, and studies seeking to describe and explain why employees flourish or become exhausted at work, and the effect of employee well-being on individual behaviours and the organization at large” (Ilies, Aw, & Pluut, 2015, p. 827). The reasons for the rise in the phenomenon and regional and cultural variations are largely unexplored. However, a study exploring ‘how happy we are’ ranked ‘paid work’ at 39 out of 40 activities individuals reported engaging in, with being ‘sick in bed’ (Bryson, Forth, & Stokes, 2017) ranking at 40 on the list, making it evident that: “there exists profound sadness at work” (Moccia, 2016, p. 144).

3 Area of Study

Locus of control (Rotter and Mulry 1965) is a psychological social learning theory (Bandura, 1978). Therefore, the personality trait construct for this research is based in the field of psychology. The term psychology is derived from the Greek word ‘psyche’, meaning mind or soul, and also butterfly (Corlett and Pearson 2003). Psychology is defined as a science that sets aside intuitions regarding how the mind works, and uses scientific tools to explore the mind (Jarrett, 2011).

Psychology had been criticized as primarily dedicated to addressing mental illness rather than mental ‘wellnesses. The purpose of positive psychology is said to: “...begin to catalyze a change in the focus of psychology from pre-occupation only with repairing the worst things in life to also building positive qualities” (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000, p.5). Having a long history in mental ailments and distress, this research investigated the concept of happiness at work, constituting of job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment and job engagement (Fisher, 2010). As such, the scope falls within the movement launched by Seligman (1975) of positive psychology, which called for a discipline to focus on the positive aspects of psyche.

Investigation of happiness at work can be conducted at three different levels: transient, personal and at a unit level (Fisher, 2010). Transient level of happiness at work is event-, affect- and mood-based. Though collectively this form has been proven to have impact on constructs of happiness at work, by its definition it lacks stability (Weiss and Cropanzano 1996). Unit level measures are criticized for mostly using averages of the personal level constructs (Totterdell, Kellett, Teuchmann, & Briner, 1998), which has made personal level of happiness the most frequently studied level of happiness at work by scholars, and is the approach adopted for this research. Jung (cited by Corlett and Pearson 2003, p.xiii) believed that psyche “stretched as far outward as it did inward”. Within the field of psychology, social psychology examines behaviour when individuals naturally mix and merge to form groups to achieve decided goals. Social psychology can be examined within the boundaries of an organization, referred to as organizational or industrial psychology (Corlett and Pearson 2003), representing the field of study for this research.

Positive psychology, within the social or organizational psychology context, is used in the research as a business tool for improving productivity, for example when leaders focus on their team members’ strengths to benefit the organization (Jarrett, 2011). Additionally, the constructs of job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment and engagement being investigated in this research are becoming increasingly important to the field of leadership and human resource management.

In conclusion, the area of study is positive psychology, drawing on organizational psychology, with relevance to business management in the areas of: organizational development, leadership and human resource management. “It holds promise of changing the way executives think about their employees and how to manage them” (Mowday, 1998, p. 399).

4 Literature Review

“The first step in developing a body of knowledge essentially begins with searching previous research to understand how far the people in the field of interest have gone through the issue” (Kumar and Phrommathed 2005, p.43). Therefore, the first step of the research is: “filling in one’s knowledge of the subject and learning what others have said about it” (Rubin and Babbie 2011, p.365) to then progress to develop the theory further. Reliance on peer-reviewed published research was referred to by Isaac Newton (1676 cited by Cronholm, 2005, p. 9) as: “standing on shoulders of giants”; hence, being able to look further. This chapter reviews the literature relevant for investigating the levels of happiness at work along the organizational lifecycle, and the core self-evaluation trait of locus of control (Rotter, 1966).

4.1 Happiness

Happiness is defined as: “state of well-being characterised by emotions ranging from contentment to intense joy” (Oxford University Press, 2005). In the Western culture, thoughts into the concept of happiness started in early Greek philosophy. Since then, many fields of studies have addressed the concept

of happiness, for example: theology, science, psychology, sociology, and economics to name a few (Fisher, 2010). Unfortunately, the philosophic tradition produced many speculations about social conditions for happiness, but with little factual knowledge and evidence. The concept regained interest in the later West-European enlightenment period; however, empirical research was hindered by a lack of adequate techniques. Unsurprisingly, with the wide range of fields addressing the matter with limited research techniques, happiness became a ‘fuzzy concept’ (Diamond and Robinson 2010).

Only in the twentieth century, the social sciences achieved a breakthrough with new methods for empirical research, which opened up the possibility of identifying conditions for happiness inductively. This advance triggered substantiated research, most of which was embedded in the newly established specializations of social indicators research, health-related quality of life research, and recently positive psychology and happiness economics (Veenhoven, 2015). Nonetheless, scientific fundamentals on the subject are crucial to understand to scrutinize current theories in the field of happiness at work briefed below:

4.1.1 Scientific Fundamentals of Happiness

Darwin (1859), in explaining the evolution of species discovered ‘natural selection’ – the adaption of species to their environment to allow them to thrive. To reinforce actions that support successful survival of species, animals, including humans, get a rush of ‘happy chemicals’ (Nguyen, 2014) released by the body when their actions support advancement of the evolutionary interest of the species. The positive feelings derived from the chemicals act as an internalized ‘reinforcement’ (Skinner, 2009) mechanism which forms the essence of all positive emotions. Based on the empirical ‘law of effect’, continuous encouragement of such actions leads to learnt behaviour by the species (Bandura, 1978; Pavlov, 1929).

These happy chemicals are experienced in many situations that allow an individual to survive, such as when, eating, drinking, sitting by a fire, or mating. It is a high arousal form of emotions referred to as pleasure, exhilaration or ecstasy. However, as the behaviour is repeated, ‘diminishing law of returns’ (van de Walle, Malthus, & Appleman, 1977 citing Turgot) ensures the correct balance for the species’ survival, by replacing the release of happy chemicals with ‘happy chemical inhibitors’ (Bergland, 1991); hence, regulating the extent to which the activity or action is pursued. These theories provide scientific fundamentals for Warr’s (2007) vitamin model, that suggests that similar to vitamin supplements, increasing the desired job characteristics for an employee will improve well-being only until deficiencies are overcome, and the happiness experienced from the supplement fades along with the deficiency.

While the above explains the selfish struggle for survival of an individual, providing fundamentals for constructs that measure personal level of happiness at work, unit level constructs describe happiness of collectives in organizations is an inherent desire in all of us. Alfred Adler (1911) concludes that every individual has natural aptitude for community feeling, or social interest. He explains this as an innate ability to engage in co-operative, reciprocal social relations. Individual psychology assumes an essential

co-operative harmony between an individual and the society, and regards conflicts as an unnatural condition. Our own lives have value, only to the extent that we add value to other people's lives (Oles and Hermans 2010). He extends this concept further by stating that the degree of social interests is a good measure of an individual's psychological health (A. Adler, 1911). Maladjusted people are said to lack social goals, with each living a life with only private meaning; hence, rendering exclusive selfish struggle for survival in humans as insufficient for happiness (Diener and Seligman 2002).

Price (1970 cited by Gardner, 2008) applied game theory to natural selection, explaining how rituals that mimic conflict help to conserve a greater gene pool. These games assist in settling the right to food, mate or other survival necessities. Hence, games create a healthy compromise between survival of one's self, and survival of others of the same species. This compromise of oneself for the collective optimizes survival of the species by ensuring a large gene pool for the species. This fundamental provides the basis for the potential of team play to allow for release of the happy chemicals (Totterdell et al., 1998), and rivalry.

So, how does survival of the species and natural selection (Darwin, 1859) incorporate happy chemicals felt by an individual when catering for others? Psychologists (Freud, 1921), sociologists (Bandura, 1978), and group theorists (Bion, 1950) have documented the idea that people are inherently ambivalent about being members of groups and seek to protect themselves from both isolation and engulfment (termed 'overwhelming' by Hollis (1998)) by alternately pulling away from and moving towards their memberships to the group. These pulls and pushes are people's calibrations of self-in-role, enabling them to cope with both internal ambivalences and external conditions (Kahn, 1990) that determines the level of engagement with others. The group can provide safety needs, belongingness, and the need for love; hence, a step above the individual psychological needs at the bottom of Maslow's pyramid (Maslow, 1943).

The Price Equation (Gardner, 2008) was also used by Hamilton (1970) to explain happiness from altruism by defining 'survival of the fittest' (Spencer, 1898) as survival of the fittest gene, and not limited to the survival of the individual member of the species. It highlights the notion that life can be viewed as the genes' struggle for immortality, while the individuals are merely mortal vehicles for the struggle (Dawkins, 1976). Altruism is categorised in three fundamentals concepts:

- Nepotism, where the individual exhibits selflessness for the sake of his genes, through protection of those with whom the gene is shared (e.g. close family).
- Reciprocation, where the individual expects co-operation from the others that may assist in self-preservation.
- Group selection, where sacrifice of the individual would lead to benefits to the group (Boyd and Richerson 2009).

While Nepotism explains the selfish struggle for survival for a species through preservation of their genes, reciprocation and group selection explain altruism, and the positive emotions felt from benefiting others.

Since the birth of first cities 6000 years ago, when individuals left their tribes to join others to create civilizations (Kirby, 2010), our relationships are increasingly founded on such basis, as we forge bonds with strangers to form: acquaintances, alliances, friendships, families and organizations – with unrelated individuals.

The release of happy chemicals is further extended to situations where an individual from one species assists in the survival of another species, or towards the environment in which it has thrived. Conservation of the environment and other species ensures that the individual can continue to survive (Southwood and Clarke 1999) explaining the drive in humans for welfare of plants, animals and birds and the environment, and the happiness derived from seeking survival of other species.

Conflicts can arise where both opposing actions can allow for happy chemicals to be triggered. For example, killing a wild beast can assist to for an individual to survive allowing for thrill and exhilaration, while protecting the beast and the environment can also assist an individual to derive a different type of happiness, one of content and fulfilment (Derrick et al., 2005) hence challenging the possibility if all forms of happiness can be experienced simultaneously.

In conclusion, the fundamental principle for happiness are explained though the seeds sown by Darwin (1859) in his concept of evolution of species, and these principles match the hierarchy of needs theorised by Maslow's (1943) (Figure 1). While Maslow (1955) emphasizes on the motivation of an individual from an individualistic needs point of view, the theory of survival of species looks at the concept in a more biological manner with emphasis on survival of the individual, gene pool, and the environment. The researcher believes that these form the foundations of all positive emotions and hence the fundamentals for the concept of happiness.

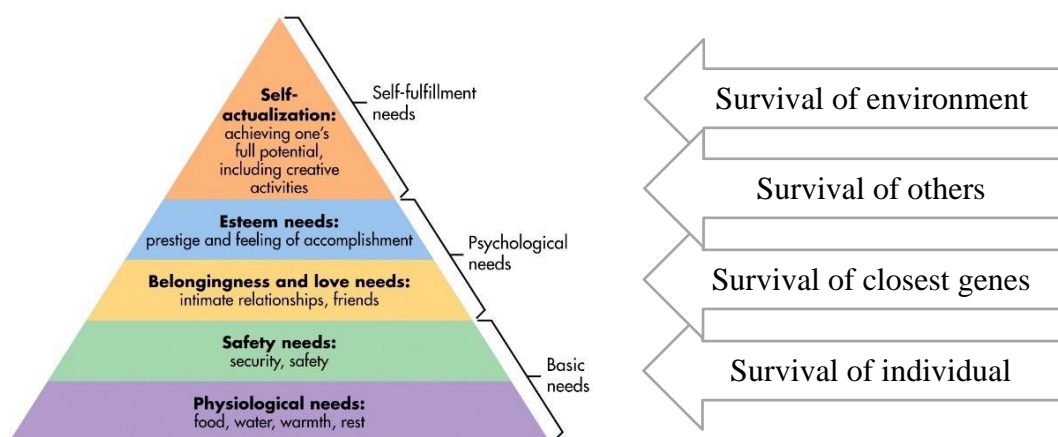


FIGURE 1: MASLOW (1943) HIERARCHY OF NEEDS COMPARED WITH DARWIN (1959) NATURAL SELECTION

SOURCE: [HTTPS://SIMPLYPSYCHOLOGY.ORG/MASLOW.HTML](https://simplypsychology.org/maslow.html)

4.1.2 Conceptualizing Happiness at Work

We spend majority of our life in organizations: from childcare, to institutions of education, our working lives, till retirement homes. Therefore, knowledge of what kind of organizations are the most ‘liveable’ for each of us is an important contribution to one’s happiness (Veenhoven, 2015). The problem regarding lack of happiness at work is still a largely understudied subject (Fisher, 2010), though gaining immense popularity (Moccia, 2016).

A variety of cultures have attempted to theorize happiness at work. For example, the Japanese culture, known for: well-being, good health, and high life expectancy, talks about ‘ikigai’. With no direct translation into English, it is thought to combine the Japanese words ‘ikiru’, meaning “to live”, and ‘kai’, meaning “the realization of what one hopes for” (Oliver, 2018). Together these definitions create the concept of “a reason to live” or the idea of having a purpose in life. This is said to arise when harmony is achieved between love for work, skills needed to work, remuneration for work, and fulfilment of needs at work (Figure 2)



FIGURE 2: THE JAPANESE CULTURE DIAGRAM ABOUT IKIGAI SOURCE: <https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2017/08/is-this-japanese-concept-the-secret-to-a-long-life>

Similar to ‘ikigai’, academically, the concept of well-being at work (Fisher, 2014) is said to include hedonic well-being, constituting of positive affect, negative affect and life satisfaction; social well-being consisting of acceptance, actualization, coherence, contribution, integration, and positive relationships with others; and eudaimonic well-being arising from autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, purpose in life and self-acceptance.

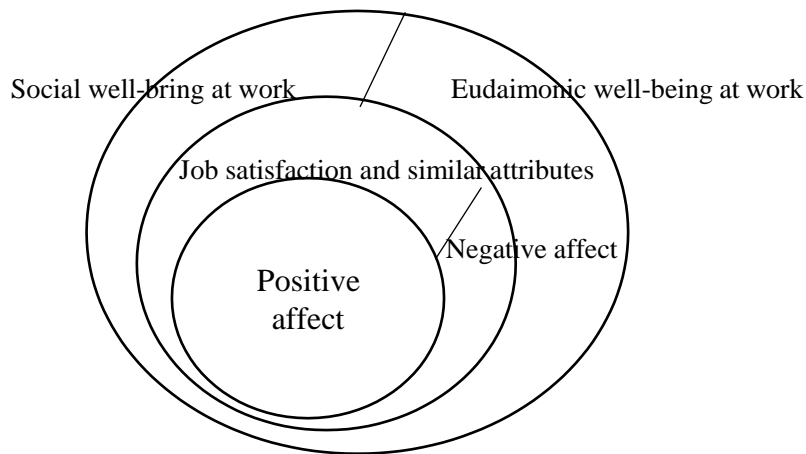


FIGURE 3: DIAGRAM SHOWING ASPECTS OF WELL-BEING AT WORK (FISHER 2014, P.15)

“Well-being [Figure 3] is a dynamic construct that changes over time and fluctuates within a person” (Sonnentag, 2015). Importance of emotional stability and perceived organizational support suggest the importance of measuring the work-related well-being holistically (Soh, Zarola, Palaïou, & Furnham, 2016). Demo and Paschoal (2016) have constructed and validated a well-being scale. Their results supported the previous findings for well-being at work for the affective (hedonic) and cognitive (fulfilment) components. They conclude that a more integrated frameworks including affective well-being component focusing on emotions and the cognitive component that examines long-term processes of growth and self-actualization, both must be jointly evaluated for the wider concept of well-being at work.

The concept of happiness at work is theorized to be a sub-set of well-being at work, comprising of the two circles within the larger concept of well-being at work (Figure 3). Experiences of happiness at work vary, ranging from: transient experiences, experiences at a personal level, and unit level constructs. Transient level of happiness works from the basic literature on moods and emotions, and introduces a theory of affective experience at work, which emphasizes on the role of work events as proximal cause of affective reactions (Weiss and Cropanzano 1996). People also react to the events of their work lives. These events drive their immediate affective states which vary over time ranging from positive to negative. Affective states fluctuate over time and performance implications of affect depend on affect states at those particular times, hence greatly lacking stability. On the contrary, unit level constructs of happiness at a team, department, or any collective within the organization, work mostly with the same measurement options as personal level, but as averages for individual measures of the team members, or alternative approaches that elicit and aggregate individuals’ perceptions of the collective (Chan, 1998; Mason & Griffin, 2005; Totterdell, 2000; Totterdell et al., 1998).

Fisher (2010) explains that happiness arises at work at three levels: environmental (or organizational), job level and event level categories. The environmental contributors include attributes of the organization, a combination of the rational and logical evaluations of aspects, such as job conditions, but also through emotional evaluations such as interpersonal relationships, also known as job-organization fit. Job level targets job-person fit (Lauver and Kristof-Brown 2001), which aligns personal qualities, calibre and

education with the job requirements of the employee with the job (Edwards, 1991), while job-organization fit tests personality fit of the employee with the organization, also known as supplementary fit (Lauver and Kristof-Brown 2001). It must be noted that empirical evidence suggests that job-person fit is less correlated to happiness at work than job-organization fit. Lastly, event level happiness is more transient in nature, capturing specific events that lead to happiness, similar to transient level happiness (Weiss and Cropanzano 1996).

If the concept of happiness at a personal level refers to pleasant moods and emotions, sub-set of well-being and positive attitudes at personal level, then the concept is related to constructs such as: dispositional affectivity, job satisfaction, affective commitment, and typical mood at work (Warr, 2007). Researchers have used terms that overlap, encompass, and correlate with the concept of happiness at work. Fisher (2010), in collectively reviewing the subject, concludes that happiness at work is an umbrella concept that includes large number of constructs. Harrison (2006) combined job satisfaction and organizational commitment into a powerful latent predictor. Fisher (2010) suggests that adding engagement to the construct should result in even better prediction. Based on the above, the three constructs are discussed below:

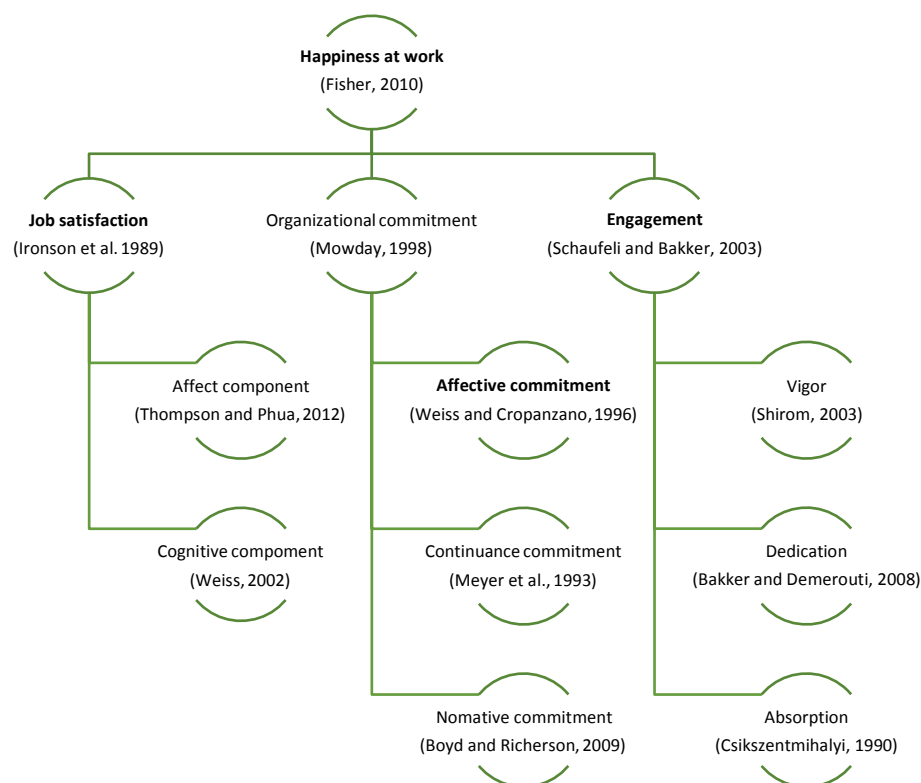


FIGURE 4: CONSTRUCTS WITHIN THE CONCEPT OF HAPPINESS AT WORK IN BOLD WITH LEAD AUTHOR CHOSEN FOR THIS RESEARCH

4.1.2.1 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is by far the most vastly studied of the constructs that contribute to the concept of happiness at work (Fisher, 2010). Unfortunately, such extensive interest has resulted in a vast range of definitions and measures (H. M. Weiss, 2002). The lack of consensus, incompatibilities, lack of validations and a systematic development of the construct has been criticized for over three decades (Thompson and Phua 2012). In an attempt to review the variety of research by scholars, the original definition is traced back the definition from Fisher and Hanna in 1931 as “a product of non-regulatory mood tendency” (Zhu, 2012, p. 293). Locke (1976, p. 1300) defined job satisfaction as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from an appraisal of one’s job or job experiences”. The definitions enforce the emotional aspect of the concept, making it suitable for a study about happiness at work.

While the above emphasise the construct to be based in affect, Eagly and Chaiken (2011) state job satisfaction to be an ‘attitude’, hence concluding it to consist of both cognitive and affect components. While cognitive component assesses: perception, memory, and judgement about work through reasoning; affect at work directly assesses: moods or emotions experienced while working. However, Weiss (2002) describes attitude as an evaluation or judgment made with regard to an attitudinal object, and argues it not to be synonymous with affect, challenging the definition to be solely cognitive. Weiss’ (2002) definition stated job satisfaction as an individual’s positive measurable judgment on the working conditions; thus, regarding it as an internal state, which was an affective evaluation on the job by a degree of liking or disliking it.

A host of measures of job satisfaction emphasize it as a constitutional concept; implying its focus to be on the features of the job and the features of job-related environment. Brief and Weiss (2002, p. 284) stated a decade ago, “it no longer should be acceptable to define job satisfaction one way (affectively) and blindly measure it another (cognitively)”. Since the classic definition identifies the construct to be an emotional state, it challenges measurement scales that focus on descriptions or evaluations such as Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (D. Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967) and Job Descriptive Index (Smith et al. 1969 cited by H. M. Weiss, 2002) that do not capture affect well.

Faces scale of job satisfaction (Kunin, 1955) focuses on feelings about the job and emotional experiences rather than descriptions of the job and evaluations; thus, targeting a measure of affect. While the researcher agrees that the measure targets an area valid for happiness at work, the measure was created over half a century ago, and presents options of faces which are arguably insufficiently expressive for our day and age of emojis; thus, limiting the participant’s expression of their emotions, as found by the researcher in the pilot study. Emojis can be introduced to the scale; however, this leads to the additional difficulty of assessment of meaning to emojis which are found not to be standardized (H. Miller et al., 2016).

Brief (1998) called for research on a new job satisfaction measure, and unlike the other measures, the Brief Index of Job Satisfaction (Thompson and Phua 2012) is overtly focus on affective aspect of commitment, and minimally to cognitive, if at all. This relatively new measure is validated for internal consistency reliability, temporal stability, convergent and criterion-related validities, cross population invariance by nationality, job level and job type, and is arguably most suitable for this research. However, communications with Prof. C. Fisher (personal communication, 30 May, 2018) highlighted the fact that consensus remains that job-satisfaction is a mix of cognitive and affective measure despite its definition, and it was suggested that it must be treated as so, Fisher (2014) confirms the cognitive aspect to be a valid part of happiness at work. Hence this latest measure is considered not ready for use until the definition of job satisfaction evolves or is modified to include only affective aspect of an individual.

It is noted that the Job in General Scale (Appendix 13.2.2.1), described as: “gauge an overall evaluative or affective judgment about one’s job” (S. S. Russell et al., 2004, p. 879) is essentially an affective measure, but due to its overall evaluation nature, cognitive aspect of the evaluation will also influence the measure. It is noted that the Job in General Scale is recommended to be used in collaboration with Job Descriptive Index (Ironson et al., 1989), which tests different facets within the job satisfaction construct, namely: work, pay, promotion opportunities, supervision, and people at work. Nonetheless, since the different facets of job-satisfaction are not of primary interest to the study, it was concluded for this research to use Job in General Scale (Prof. C. Fisher personal communication, June 11, 2018). The abbreviated validated version of the scale was used as it ensures validity while decreasing the time taken for completion of the questionnaire (S. S. Russell et al., 2004). This decision is supported by the fact that job satisfaction is proven to be composed of both cognitions about the job and affect at work. However, findings from basic and applied attitude research conducted suggest that the extent to which job satisfaction is based on affective or cognitive information is contingent on individual differences, in particular to the need for affect to the individual (Schlett and Ziegler 2014).

Stability of the measure overtime was important to assess the time-frame for this research. Job satisfaction is found to be modestly stable over two, three and five year periods (Staw and Ross 1985), even where employment or occupation is changed. Part of this stability may arise genetically, and the other is said to be contributed proximally from personality traits and self-evaluations (Arvey, Bouchard, Segal, & Abraham, 1989; Judge, Heller, & Klinger, 2008). Staw and Ross (1985, p. 478) compared stability of job satisfaction with that of locus of control to prove that it is: “at least as stable over time as one of the most widely used personality measures” providing confidence of stability of two constructs included in this research.

4.1.2.2 Organizational Commitment

Haughey (1997) argues that commitment to an organization can range from commitment to customers, employees, to investors, or to the organization, exhibited as loyalty, which is critical to value creation;

thus, an important source of growth, profits, and competitive advantage achieved through a people-centric strategy, which can pose a barrier to entry by an existing competitor to erode the competitive advantage (Barney, 1991).

As the name suggests, organizational commitment is an assessment of the 'stickiness' of employees to an organization. Porter et al. (1974) defines commitment in terms of the overall strength of an employee's identification with and involvement in an organization. However, a host of reasons can exist for commitment to an organization, ranging from: culture of loyalty, fear of change, lack of alternatives, geographic or political reasons, or others. It must be noted that these may not always be based on affect; thus, unrelated to happiness at work (Brierley, 1996). This makes it important for this research to identify the category within organizational commitment that best relates to happiness at work. As such, few categorizations available from scholars are discussed below:

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) propose commitment categories of: compliance, identification and internalization. Compliance embraces instrumental behaviour to gain reward, such as behaviour aimed at achieving an employee's performance measures (e.g. key performance indicators as set by the organization) to ensure bonuses, pay increases or promotions. Identification occurs when an employee wants to be associated with the organization due to its image and an ability to identify with it. Internalization reflects a scenario where the employee's values or goals aligned with the organization's goals that lead commitment to stay with the organization.

Mowday et al. (1982) categorized commitment into two perspectives: attitudinal and behavioural. Alignment of organizational goals with the employees' personal goals that promotes willingness for hard work towards the goal, and level of desire to stay within the organization is the view of attitudinal commitment. Behavioural commitment, on the contrary, relates to the process by which the employee becomes locked into the organization, defined as: "...an employee's intention to stay with an organization" (Price, 1997, p. 104).

Meyer and Allen (2016) divided the construct into three components: affective, continuance and normative, concisely summarized as commitment to the organization driven by: desire, need, or obligation respectively. This provides a wider definition than Porter (1974), whose definition embraces the affective component of commitment only. The components of the construct of commitment are discussed below:

- Affective commitment: relates to the employee's perspective of their relationship with the organization, argued to be determined by psychological state of the employee, relating to emotional attachment to the organization. Mowday et al. (1982) categorize the antecedents of the component into the four categories: personal characteristics, structural characteristics, job related characteristics, and subjective work experiences. The last two have been blurred due to common use of self-reported measures; as such, a consolidated 'work experiences' category is proposed by Meyer and Allen (2016):

- Personal characteristics: ranging from demographics to personal dispositional characteristics have been researched. While insignificant correlations are found to exist with demographics (Mottaz, 1988), personal dispositional needs, such as: achievement, affiliation and autonomy, have proven to be correlated to affective commitment (Steers, 1977). Luthans et al. (1987) study uncovered that attributional processes, such as locus of control, correlate to organizational commitment and leadership behaviour. As such, this research anticipated a relationship between locus of control and affective commitment.
- Structural characteristics: of an organization, such as decentralization of decision making (Brooke, Russell, & Price, 1988), and policies and procedures in an organization (O'Driscoll, 1987) bear a relationship with affective commitment. As such, this research anticipated a relationship between locus of control and position of the department on the organizational lifecycle.
- Work experiences: assist to develop commitment to an organization, where there is fundamental compatibility between the employee and the organization's values. Herzberg (1966) categorizes the work experiences into: hygiene and motivator, where the earlier refers to comfortable work environment (physically and psychologically), and the latter refers to encouragement and appraisal of competence.
- Continuance commitment: is led by one's financial value (Oles and Hermans 2010). It is a calculated decision to continue with the organization for reasons such as: loss of income, cost of moving, or for lack of better alternatives available. The decision is driven by financial obligations and an assessment of benchmarked self-worth in the market.
- Normative commitment: arise from an obligation an employee may feel to remain with the organization. This may be financial, where the employee has a stake in the organization, but more commonly a result of social, cultural or organizational loyalty norms (Boyd and Richerson 2009).

Attitudinal commitment remained the most attractive for scholars due to the ambiguity of desire compared to the clarity of continuance commitment driven through need, while normative commitment remains fairly unexplored to date. It must be acknowledged that studies have not shown clear convergence and validity of the categorizations (Price, 1997). In particular, normative and affective commitment do not show empirical distinction and are argued to both, in different ways, represent internalized forms of psychological attachment leading to a suggestion that they should be combined (Cohen, 2007). Nonetheless, meta-analysis of affective commitment correlated 0.60 with job satisfaction and 0.50 with job involvement (Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran 2005), which suggests a existence of a common core to the concept of happiness across these distinct constructs suggested by Fisher (2010) to be used simultaneously as a measure of happiness at work.

Mowday (1998) in reflecting on his 25 year work on organizational commitment applauded the progress in understanding of the construct and its antecedents, and encouraged research on the topic in four areas:

understanding specifics of what leads to employee commitment, bottom line implications of commitment to an organization, linking human resource systems to organizational outcomes, and exploring types of organizations and understanding types of organizations where commitment is more important than in others. This research addressed the first of the recommended areas. Further research showed empirical evidence that values congruence and work environment congruence had the strongest and most consistent effects on the organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Westerman and Cyr 2004); hence, encouraging research into the field in different work environments as conducted by this research.

Measures of organizational commitment are as varied as the categorizations. Out of the host of options, due to little evidence of systematic or comprehensive efforts to determine the stability, consistency, or predictive powers of the various instruments, Fisher (2010) recommends the two discussed below to be considered: Mowday et al.'s (1996) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire was the most significant measurement of commitment for many years, as such has been vastly validated. Additionally, it taps into level of identification with the organization, alignment with organizational goals, willingness to exert effort to achieve the goal, and desire to stay with the organization. As such, it assesses level of affective commitment; hence, suitable for this research.

Meyer et al (1993) measure of commitment (Appendix 13.2.2.2) uses six items to assess affective commitment without an assessment of the reason for the commitment. In the search for personal attachment to the organization for any reason, affective or desire to commit to an organization is closely aligned to happiness at an organization, as it represents emotional attachment. This makes it also suitable for the research. It is noted that the latter construct is founded in affect, with a question that explicitly addresses the term 'happiness'. Additionally, as confirmed that the options for response can be reduced from seven to five (Meyer and Allen 2004) led to adoption of this survey for practical reasons, in ensuring a reasonable length of the questionnaire to assist in achieving a better response rate.

4.1.2.3 Engagement

Linking to the fundamentals of happiness, engagement as a concept lies between personal survival and belonging to the group, a battle of balance, to avoid being overwhelmed or alienated (Hollis, 1998). This is seen in the organization as behaviours by which people 'bring in' or 'leave out' their personal selves during work role performances. Kahn (1990, p. 694) defined personal engagement as: "the harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances". Hence, the concept of engagement refers to the amount of authentic self that individuals devote to their work, that generates attentiveness, connection, integration and focus, which leads positive outcomes, both at the individual level (personal growth and development) as well as at the organizational level (performance quality). He states (Kahn, 1990, p. 400): "Personal engagement is the simultaneous employment and expression of a person's 'preferred self' in task... My premise is that people have dimensions of themselves that, given appropriate

conditions, they prefer to use and express in the course of role performances”. This is reflective of an employee’s ability to live their archetype and be authentic to their personality traits in the workplace (Corlett and Pearson 2003).

Engagement differs from other constructs of job satisfaction and affective job commitment being reviewed. Work engagement is different from job satisfaction in that it combines high work pleasure (dedication) with high activation (vigor, absorption); job satisfaction is typically a more passive form of employee well-being (Bakker, 2011). Research on engagement has investigated how engagement differs from related concepts such as workaholism, where engaged workers were found to lack the typical compulsive drive. Typical of addictions, workaholism endangers health, reduces happiness, and deteriorates interpersonal relations and social functioning (Bakker, Demerouti, & Burke, 2009). For those who were engaged at work, work was enjoyable, not an addiction (van Tilburg and Igou 2017); hence, workaholism and work engagement are concluded to be largely independent concepts (van Beek, Taris, & Schaufeli, 2011).

High engagement demonstrates higher psychological well-being and personal accomplishment, whereas low engagement exhibits higher emotional exhaustion and depersonalization (Shuck and Reio 2014). Bakker et al. (2009) mention four reasons why engaged workers perform better than non-engaged worker in which the authors directly attribute the relationship between engagement and happiness at work. Engaged employee were said to: often experience positive emotions, including happiness, joy, and enthusiasm; experience better psychological and physical health; create their own job and personal resources (e.g., support from others); and transfer their engagement to others. Research has revealed that engagement is a unique concept that is best predicted by job resources (e.g., autonomy, supervisory coaching, performance feedback) and personal resources (e.g., optimism, self-efficacy, self-esteem) (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008).

Kahn’s (1990) concept is developed further by two related schools of thoughts discussed below:

- Strongly linked to energy levels at work, engagement is summarized as opposite of ‘burnout’ (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1997). Burnout is defined as high levels of exhaustion and negative attitudes toward their work (cynicism) (Demerouti, Mostert, & Bakker, 2010). Three subscales emerged from the data analysis: emotional exhaustion (when employees’ emotional resources are depleted, which leads to a feeling that they are no longer able to give all of themselves at a psychological level); negative, cynical attitudes and feelings about the organization; and a negative self-evaluation, leading to unhappiness about themselves and dissatisfied with their accomplishments on the job.
- Macey and Schneider (2008, p. 24) describe engagement as “positive affect associated with the job and the work setting connoting or explicitly indicating feelings of persistence, vigor, energy, dedication, absorption, enthusiasm, alertness and pride”. Affect at work directly assesses moods

or emotions at work. It is said to work in two dimensions: hedonic and arousal, where the earlier relates more to affect and the latter to motivation and creativity (Baas, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2008). Most measures of affect follow the mood circumplex.

Measurement options are relatively fewer compared to job satisfaction and job commitment, and comprehensively discussed in literature (Wefald, Mills, Smith, & Downey, 2012).

Harter et al. (2002) presented the Gallup Work Audit, a 12-item measure of employment engagement. This scale does not measure experience of feelings but descriptively assesses presumed antecedents in workplace situation e.g. role clarity, recognition and praise, learning and relationships in the organization. These features are regarded to be salient in the face of high job demands (Bakker et al., 2008). The measure does have the benefit of being a stable, long term measure of engagement.

The first conceptualization is a measurement of engagement as low scores on the dimensions of exhaustion and cynicism, and high score in the dimension of efficacy, in the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach et al., 1997). The results are interpreted as levels of: energy, involvement and efficacy. The researcher feels that this is largely imbedded in traditional psychology, where the focus is on mental illness. Due to the nature of the questionnaire, it can be expected that greater care is needed in its execution due to the possible negativity projected by it, which can have a negative effect on the morale in the organization where research is being conducted.

Utrecht Work Enthusiasm Scale (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003) engagement follows a more positive psychology thought, hence use of it in the survey can be without much apprehension, and includes three subscales: vigor, dedication, and absorption. It is sufficiently validated, and queries happiness with work directly in the questionnaire (Appendix 13.2.2.3). The scale has been subsequently abbreviated without compromise to reliability and validity hence chosen for the study (Seppälä et al., 2009).

Each component, vigor, dedication and absorption, of the construct of engagement at work is discussed below:

4.1.2.3.1 Vigor

Investigated since Roman times, the famous politician, lawyer and philosopher, Marcus Tullius Cicero, stated that it is exercise alone that keeps our mind in vigor (Henig, 2005). In recent academic literature, Shirom (2003) with his work on vigour at work elaborates on the definition of engagement by defining vigour as positive affective experience involving energetic resources including: feelings of physical strength, emotional energy in aspects at work including others, and cognitive liveliness or alertness. These three types of energetic resources, while individually owned, are closely interrelated. With its fundamental in Conservation of Resources Theory, which argues that personal resources affect each other and exist as a resource pool, and that an expansion of one is often associated with the other being augmented as well, vigor forms the activation element of engagement, ranging from exhaustion or sleepiness to vigor

(Demerouti et al., 2010). “Vigor is characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working” (Bakker and Demerouti 2008, p.210) “the willingness to invest effort in one’s work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties” (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gon Alez-ro, & Bakker, 2002, p. 74).

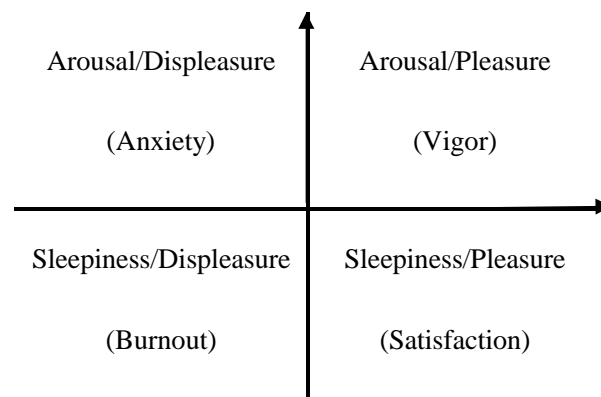


FIGURE 5: QUADRANTS FOR AROUSAL V SLEEPINESS PLOTTED AGAINST DISPLEASURE TO PLEASURE (RUSSEL 2003)

Each affective state is differentiated by where it lies on the two-dimensional space that consists of the horizontal dimension of pleasure against displeasure, and of the vertical dimension of arousal against sleepiness (J. A. Russell, 2003) (Figure 5). In this two-dimensional space, vigor represents positive arousal or a combination of moderate amounts of arousal and pleasure. Vigor’s counterpart in the quadrant of displeasure-arousal is anxiety, and burnout (Shirom, 2006).

Similar to happiness, vigor is dictated to a great extent by genetic predisposition and personality trait. Vigor at work represents “a positive affective response to one’s ongoing interactions with significant elements in one’s job and work environment that comprises the interconnected feelings of physical strength, emotional energy, and cognitive liveliness” (Shirom, 2006, p. 90). As such, antecedents of vigor at work include: participation in decision making, intrinsic or extrinsic rewards, supervisor’s leadership style, support from colleagues or cohesion, autonomy and control over resources.

4.1.2.3.2 *Dedication*

As stated earlier, engagement is defined as high activation and high identification with the organization. While the activation element of engagement is represented by level of vigor discussed above, identification with an organization ranges from cynicism to dedication (Demerouti et al., 2010). “Dedication refers to being strongly involved in one’s work and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, and challenge” (Bakker and Demerouti 2008, p.210)

Job dedication, which includes self-disciplined, motivated acts such as: following rules, working hard, taking initiative, and following rules to support organizational objectives (Van Scotter and Motowidlo 1996). Dedication is defined as: “the motivational foundation for job performance that drives people to act with the deliberate intention of promoting the organization's best interests” (Van Scotter and

Motowidlo 1996, p.526), including: conscientiousness, generalized expectancy of task success, and goal orientation.

Items measuring job dedication illustrated effort, persistence, and self-discipline. Job resources lead to dedication and extra-role performance (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007). These job resources, in turn, encourage personal investment in the work and are seen as a recipe for success.

4.1.2.3.3 *Absorption*

Work engagement is seen as the opposite of burnout which includes reduced professional efficacy. Engagement includes the opposite of such, which is absorption. “Absorption is characterized by being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one’s work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work” (Bakker and Demerouti 2008, p.210).

A specific example of absorption at work is experienced as flow. It is experienced at times when focus peaks, and the employee is immersed in the task (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi 2000). Flow is a very enjoyable state, having been described as a peak experience of exhilarating and euphoria.

Csikszentmihalyi (1990) confirms that flow may not be pleasant at the time it occurs; nonetheless, regarded as an optimal experience, providing a feel and sense of exhilaration, a deep sense of enjoyment that is long cherished, which does not come through passive, receptive, relaxing times, but optimal experiences occur when our physical or mental limits are stretched from a voluntary effort to accomplish something difficult and worthwhile.

A wide variety of activities can lead to flow, subject to the interests of the individual, which were shown to be non-related to culture, stage of modernization, social class, age, or gender. Csikszentmihalyi (1990) suggested major components of flow: completion of a task where there is a clear goal, which is seen to be attainable, there is control, and fast feedback, an ability to concentrate, allowing for deep, but effortless involvement (similar to mindfulness (Jones, 2018) or meditation (Prelipcean, 2013)) leading to a concern for the self ‘disappearing’, yet, paradoxically the sense of self emerging stronger after the flow experience is over; and the sense of duration of time is altered.

4.1.3 Causes of Happiness at Work

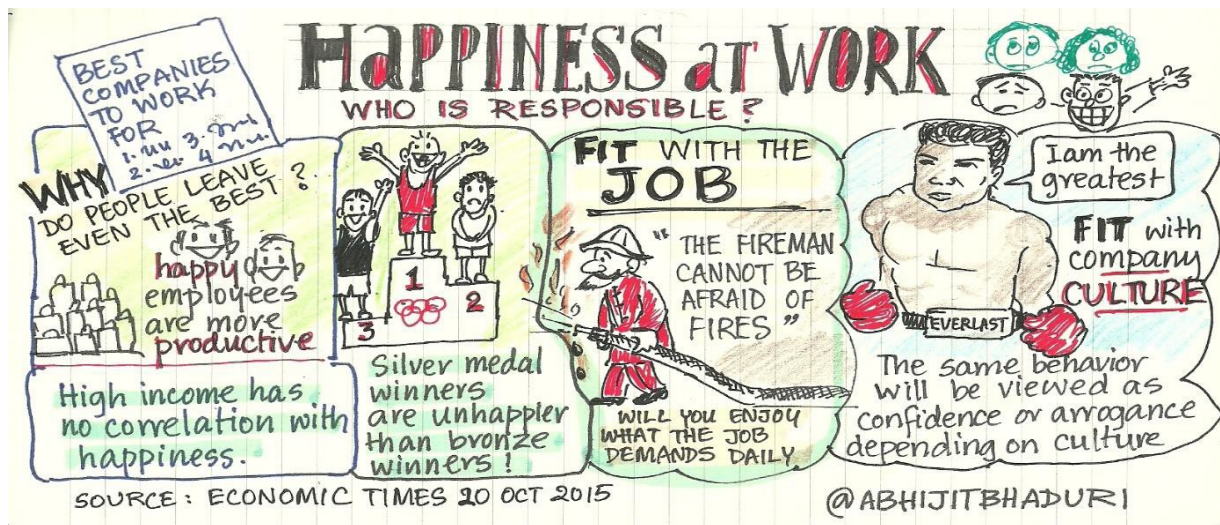


FIGURE 6: CARTOON SHOWING ANTECEDENTS OF HAPPINESS AT WORK

In reviewing dispositional factors to happiness in organizations, the contribution comprises of: genetic pre-disposition (A. Weiss et al., 2008), and personality (Judge, Thoresen, Pucik, & Welbourne, 1999). Arvey et al.'s (1989) research on monozygotic or identical twins revealed that approximately 30% of the observed variance in general job satisfaction was due to genetic factors.

Several of personality traits have been found to predict job satisfaction through affectivity (Connolly and Viswesvaran 2000; Thoresen et al. 2003; Watson and Slack 1993; Bretz and Judge 1994), defined as self-rated cheerfulness (Diener, Nickerson, Lucas, & Sandvik, 2002). For example, research with the big five personality traits (Judge et al., 2002) concluding a 0.41 multiple correlation: negative correlation between neuroticism (-0.29) and job satisfaction, and positive correlation between extraversion (+0.25) and job satisfaction in a generalized across study. Judge et al. (2001) concluded positive correlation between self-efficacy (+0.45) and job satisfaction. Similarly, (Judge and Bono 2001) in a meta-analysis of self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability (opposite of neuroticism), which they categorize as core self-evaluation traits, with job satisfaction show positive correlations of 0.26, 0.45, 0.32 and 0.24 respectively. While concluding significant predictability of the core self-evaluations (positive self-concept consisting of four traits: self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability (low neuroticism)) and job satisfaction, further research is endorsed by the scholars regarding the traits and the processes by which they affect these outcomes. In light of the correlations of the traits with satisfaction, and the high correlations among the traits, future research considering these traits is stated as warranted by the researchers (Judge et al., 2008).

While Judge and Bono (2001) concluded that self-esteem, locus of control, neuroticism, and generalized self-efficacy are significant predictors of both job satisfaction, it was also concluded a significant correlation exists between locus of control and job satisfaction (+0.32). Since the linear relationship between locus of control and subjective well-being is challenged, with significant correlation only at

optimal point (balanced locus of control) (April et al., 2012), the relationship between locus of control and collective constructs that represent happiness at work (Fisher, 2010) can be re-examined for a correlation. There is much to be known about the exact nature of the traits (whether or not they are indicators of the broader personality trait) and the processes by which they affect these outcomes. In light of the similar correlations of the traits with satisfaction and performance observed here, and the high correlations among the traits, future research considering these traits together is warranted.

Work Adjustment Theory (Bretz and Judge 1994) concludes that the work situation must meet the employee preference to allow for happiness at work. Kristof (1996, pp. 4–5) defined this fit as: ‘the compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when: (a) at least one entity provides what the other needs, or (b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or (c) both’. This definition focuses on fit of the person with the whole organization in addition to a specific job, vocation, or group (Verquer et al., 2003).

Dominant causes of happiness at work include: attributes of the organization (e.g. organization culture, human resource practices), the job (e.g. pay, stability, complexity, challenge, interest level (Hackman and Oldham 1975; Morgeson and Humphrey 2006; Warr 2007), the supervisor (e.g. trust levels, respect and fairness (Dirks and Ferrin 2002), or other aspects of work environment (relationships with other people (Dutton and Ragins 2007; Dutton 2003)). Research assessment of influence of feelings in organizations shows sharing positive experiences with others reinforces happiness. The amplification is more intense when the people who hear the positive communication respond authentically. Myers (2000) notes that when employees are happy, we are readier to help others, thus contributing to the organizational harmony, learning and performance.

The 11 categorized work factors that were considered to represent the content of job satisfaction by Saane et al. (2003) are noted below:

1. workload (time pressure subjectively perceived, tedium, social problems, interpersonal conflict, or stress);
2. supervision (support of supervisor, recognition of supervisor, or being treated with fairness)
3. growth/development (personal growth and development, training, or education);
4. co-workers (professional relations with co-workers, or adequacy of co-workers);
5. promotion (possibility of career advancement, or job level);
6. financial rewards (salary, fringe benefits, or employee benefits);
7. work content (variety in skills, complexity of a job, or the challenge in a job, role ambiguity, routine);
8. autonomy (individual responsibility for work, control over job decisions);
9. communication (counselling opportunities, feedback);
10. meaningfulness;

11. work demands (involuntarily doing extra work or procedures, structural complexity, insecurity of work situation, or emotional commitment).

In a different subject context, when referring to a consumer products firm, Chapman (2005) identify reasons that predict product success as follows: workload or life balance, senior leadership, compensation, challenge/achievement, and the work environment.

Demographic variables play a relatively minor role in the development of organizational commitment (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002), but personal characteristics, job characteristics, and work experiences influenced commitment (Steers, 1977). Work experiences were found to have much stronger relation with affective commitment (Meyer et al., 2002). These findings support the argument that organizational focus on recruitment criteria that favours those predisposed to being affectively committed will not be as effective as managing their experiences once recruited in the organization.

The research on antecedents of engagement show correlation with a host of job resources. Job resources refer to those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that: reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, be functional in achieving work goals, and stimulate personal growth, learning, and development (Bakker and Demerouti 2007). The correlations are noted with: supervisor support, coaching, social support, utilization of variety of skill-set of the employee, autonomy, learning, job control, innovative climate, clear and frequent feedback processes and rewards and recognition (Halbesleben, 2006).

In reference to burnout as the opposite of engagement, six areas of work-life that encompass the central relationships with burnout are as follows: workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values. Burnout was found to arise from chronic mismatches between people and their work setting in terms of some or all of these six areas. A mismatch in workload is generally found as excessive overload, through the simple formula that too many demands exhaust an individual's energy to the extent that recovery becomes impossible. A workload mismatch may also result from the wrong kind of work, as when people lack the skills or inclination for a certain type of work, even when it is required in reasonable quantities (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001).

4.2 Control

Control is defined by the dictionary as one's ability to influence consequence or course of events, or direct people's behaviour (Oxford University Press, 2005). While the concept is debated for its definition (Langlois, 2002), it is the general consensus that individuals desire a degree of control over their lives and their environment. So much so, that Alfred Adler (cited by Burrow, 1917) regarded control to be an intrinsic necessity of life itself. Hence, we see the dummy buttons for pelican crossings and door closing in elevators, as it allows individuals the perception of control which alters feelings, reactions and behaviour (BBC Crew, 2016).

Traditional scholars like Seligman (1975) indicate that control is exercised when an outcome is more likely to occur as a response to a behaviour. For example, if an individual is persecuted based on a particular action, then the person regards the persecution as controllable. However, if repercussions are randomly administered, or perceived to be random, then the individual regards it not to be controllable. Hence, control is exercised due to perceived prediction.

It is important to note that control is also seen to be exercised without a predicted outcome (Nickels, Cramer, & Gural, 1992). ‘Predictionless control’ is evident in life, where an individual may not know the outcome, but attempts to exercise control; thus, exhibiting a generalized expectancy for a reaction to an action taken. While it is difficult to see how one could convince people that they are controlling unpredictable outcomes, the illusion of control is said to arise from a higher belief of controllability, or perceived control (Langer, 1975). Studies support the notion that this perception is learnt behaviour during childhood (Bandura, 1978), which is subsequently embodied in oneself as a personality trait (Seligman, 1972). The trait is termed ‘locus of control’ (Rotter, 1966).

4.2.1 Locus of Control

Locus of control (Rotter, 1966) is a personality construct that reflects one’s belief or perception about who controls life and the environment (Lefcourt, 1976b). Rotter (1966) used the empirical ‘law of effect’ (Boring, 1933) which states that people are inherently motivated to seek positive stimulation, or reinforcement, and to avoid unpleasant stimulation. On this basis, Lefcourt (1976b) generated a predictive formula where he defined ‘behaviour potential’ (the likelihood of engaging in a particular behaviour) as a function of expectancy (the probability that a given behaviour will lead to a particular outcome) and reinforcement (outcomes of our behaviours). Lefcourt (1976b) used Skinner’s (Lejeune, Richelle, & Wearden, 2006) concept of ‘reinforcement’ which stated that if the outcomes of responses by an individual are unfavourable, then the likelihood of the operant to use the response in the future is decreased. In the context of locus of control, a reinforcement experienced, leads to an expectation of the outcome for the future (Rotter, 1966). The person learns to discriminate behaviours and outcomes, and generalizes beliefs for the future. This generalization of expectancies of control of reinforcement defines and formulates one’s locus of control (Marks, 1998).

Perceived control in psychology is a “person's belief that he or she is capable of obtaining desired outcomes, avoiding undesired outcomes, and achieving goals” (Landau, Kay, & Whitson, 2015, p. 695). This belief can exist at varying levels, reflecting the degree to which one perceives personal control in life (S. Connolly, 1980). Locus of control has been described as a dimension with two opposing differentiates (Lee-Kelley, 2006). The dimensions reflect the extent to which individuals believe that what happens to them is within their control (internal) or beyond it (external) (Carrim, 2006). This presents a continuum of internal-external belief system (Littunen and Storhammar 2000) that is measured using Rotter’s (1966)

Internal-External (I-E) Scale, subsequently abbreviated without compromising its reliability, validity and rigor (Valecha and Ostrom 1974).

All theories of personality are built on assumptions. Linearity of human nature is one of the basic assumptions to build a theory. Two polar dimensions identified by the theorists, and are assumed to have a linear continuum from one pole to the other (Hjelle and Ziegler 1976). Similar is true of the Rotter's Internal External (I-E) Scale (Rotter, 1966), where the two poles are defined as internal expectancy and external expectancy, and a linear scale is said to join the two (Schjoedt and Shaver 2012).

In addition to internal and external locus of control expectancy, the concept of dual control, or "shared responsibility", is described as a balance of externality and internality. Individuals who believe in both internal and external forces control their lives and the environmental are labelled as bi-locals (Torun and April 2006). The move from a lack of a term for the expectancy to it being termed 'bi-local' provided a view that in addition to internality and externality, claiming that there exists a profound position in the middle of the spectrum with specific traits associated with the position. Bi-locals were subsequently termed as having a 'balanced locus of control' expectancy by April et al. (2012), as a complement to the position on the spectrum that allowed for maximising subjective well-being (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999). Hence, challenging the concept that internality may be optimal for significant aspects of life, as suggested by majority of scholars in the West (Sprung & Jex, 2012).

Phares (1976) regarded the I-E scale to be a 'rough measure', and that researchers should develop domain-specific measures. Numerous studies have shown that Rotter (1966) scale is multi-dimensional in nature (Boone and de Brabander 1997; Cherlin and Bourque 1974). This has led to several measures of situation specific locus of control that explore the generalized expectancy in a specific situation (Ng, Sorensen, & Eby, 2006). In social learning theory (Bandura, 1978), two types of expectancies are distinguished: situation specific and generalized. For example. Spector's work locus of control (Spector, 1988), or health locus of control (Wallston, Strudler Wallston, & DeVellis, 1978) are a situation specific measure of in the work environment, or in respect of an individual's health respectively. As such this does not render the multi-dimensional scale, grounded in social learning theory (Bandura, 1978), as meaningless. Wang et al. (2010) explains locus of control as a hierarchical construct, with general locus of control existing at the highest level within this hierarchy, and several context-specific sub-dimensions, such as work locus of control, health locus of control, marital locus of control, and parental locus of control to name a few, exist at lower levels of the hierarchy.

As such, Rotter's (1966) research is matured, and the I-E scale continues to be used (Lee-Kelley, 2006). Klockars and Varnum (1975) examined the I-E scale to conclude validity of 11 out of the 23 questions as directly opposing options. Adeyemi-Bello's (2001) study concluded that 23 items were too many for the construct. Thus, the abbreviated Rotter's (1966) scale is vastly popular (Appendix 13.2.1).

While the scale has been extensively examined in entrepreneurship research, it has produced mixed results. This may be due to measurement issues, such as the widespread use of a general locus of control scale, which is not domain specific (Schjoedt and Shaver 2012). It is for this reason why an entrepreneurial specific scale was used for their study. However, since this research proposes study across the lifecycle of an organization, the scale cannot be used for the research. Spector (1988), after introducing the work locus of control scale, confirmed significant correlations with job satisfaction, intention of quitting, perceived influence at work, role stress, and perceptions of supervisory style.

Nonetheless, organizational studies have been dominated by the use of Rotter's (1966) I-E scale of general locus of control, despite the existence of the Spector's (1988), reliable and validated work locus of control (Macan, Trusty, & Trimble, 1996) and empirical evidence of its correlations (Ng et al., 2006). The work locus of control generally yielded stronger relationships with work-related criteria (e.g., job satisfaction, affective commitment, and burnout) than general locus of control (Q. Wang et al., 2010). The measure was found to correlate significantly with job satisfaction, intention of quitting, perceived influence at work, role stress and perceptions of supervisory style (Spector, 1988); hence, is suitable for the proposed research. However, due to the pre-existing correlations available with constructs of happiness with the general locus of control expectancy (April et al., 2012), it was chosen for use for this research to ensure correlations are captured where existing.

4.2.2 Locus of Control and Happiness

Fantasy and blaming powerful others are attitudes more consistent with individuals with an external locus of control, which also indicates a tendency for low subjective well-being (Diener, Suh, & Oishi, 1997). The absence of control, or a perception of absence of control, increases the likelihood of learned helplessness (Seligman, 1972) and general physical illness (Peterson et al., 1993; Seligman, 1975). External locus of control has a positive correlation with higher levels of psychological distress (Holder and Levi 1988), vulnerability to depression (Ganellen and Blaney 1984), and poorer responsiveness to anti-depressants (Reynaert, Janne, Vause, Zdanowicz, & Lejeune, 1995). Furthermore, Marks (1998) states that countries that foster a high perception of external control also fostered higher rates of suicide.

In reference to the correlations of externality and unhappiness constructs, Pannells et al. (2008) reported significant difference on the happiness measure was found for those individuals with internal locus of control versus those with external locus of control. Similar was reported in a study conducted on students (David and Singh 2016). A relationship through self-control was also concluded, where internals were found to have greater self-control, and greater self-control was significantly correlated with Oxford Happiness inventory (Ramezani and Gholtash 2015). Subtly different, internals were found to appreciate freedom of choice more than externals, and therefore to be happier (Verme, 2009). This hints towards the fact that externals are possibly happier in a situation where there are fewer options. This introduces the

possibility of different needs of the two polar extremes of the scale of locus of control to allow for happiness.

Subjective well-being is a field of psychology that aims at understanding people's evaluations of their lives (Diener et al., 1999) and its scales are a popular academic measure of happiness. These evaluations can be cognitive (generalized life satisfaction) or may consist of the frequency with people experience positive or negative emotions (Diener et al., 1997).

The relationship between cognitive, long-term subjective well-being and locus of control has been investigated using Diener et al.'s 'Satisfaction with Life Scale' (Diener et al., 1985). April et al. (2012) concluded optimal well-being for individuals with a balanced locus of control, highlighting the shortcomings of internals that lead to lower levels of subjective well-being, including: such as assuming too much responsibility and lacking trust in others (April et al., 2011). People in individualistic states (i.e. Western cultures), that place more emphasis on internality and independence (Marks, 1998), make more attribution for events internally to themselves; therefore, experience amplified effects when things go wrong or right. This indicates sensitivity of internals on the subjective well-being scale.

While the consensus remains with internality to be associated with happiness in general, and there are clinical studies associating externality with unhappiness and depression; nonetheless, the review on the subject highlights that different aspects of an environment can lead to difference in happiness for internals and externals (Verme, 2009). As such, it is reviewed as not as a 'one fit all' scenario, despite the consensus. Additionally, the introduction of a balanced locus of control expectancy as optimizing subjective well-being challenges this consensus.

4.2.3 Locus of Control and Happiness at Work

In exploring the antecedents of happiness at work, it is important to note that dispositional contributors are regarded as most stable predictors of constructs forming happiness at work. These dispositional contributors are: genetic predisposition (A. Weiss et al., 2008) and personality traits (Judge et al., 2002). Several constructs of happiness have found genetics to be the main driver of where an individual is on the scale (Arvey et al., 1989). For example, Lyubomirsky, Sheldon, and Schkade (2005) constructed the happiness formula which regards genetic disposition, environmental factors and voluntary activities as determining the level of happiness of an individual. A biological set point primarily determines one's level of happiness, while circumstantial influences were found to account for up to only a 15% contribution (Ricard and Browner 2007). Similarly, 50% variance in Subjective Well Being scale (Diener et al., 1999) were found to be genetically determined (Arvey et al., 1989; Lykken, 2007; A. Weiss et al., 2008). The concept is based on the theory that happy people are more likely to experience events that they consider desirable, and also have a tendency to perceive 'neutral' events as positive (Seidlitz and Diener 1993).

Similarly, 30% of the variance in overall job satisfaction were found to be genetically dictated in Arvey et al.'s (1989) study of identical twins. While stability in job satisfaction may also be accounted for distally by genes, but more proximally by personality traits and self-evaluations (Judge et al., 2008). Since the publication of researches by Staw and Rodd (1985), the dispositional source of job satisfaction has become an important research topic. One of the criticisms of his literature is that it has not provided much clarity in terms of which traits would prove most fruitful (Brief, 1998). Hence, the providing consent for research of the construct against personality traits.

The World Economic Forum (Bradberry, 2017) quoted an international study that surveyed more than 500 leaders about the basis of choosing employees. A preference from leaders based on employee's personality ranked highest, with 78% stating it to be what sets an employee apart. It was considered to be more important than culture-fit (53%) or skill-set (39%). Hence, the importance of personality type to commerce cannot be underestimated, making it a crucial subject for business management.

Major personality traits when examined with one of the constructs of happiness at work, job satisfaction, conclude a significant correlation at a meta-analysis level (Judge and Bono 2001). The researchers warrant further delving in the area of research with focus on exploring areas which lead to the correlation. The high correlation amongst the personality traits themselves do not warrant the need for a 'bumper' combination of traits for future studies (Judge and Bono 2001); thus, suggesting that focusing on a construct as an acceptable approach in pursuing greater depth of understanding.

Ng et al. (2006) hypothesized an internal locus of control to be positively related to global facets of job satisfaction, including: pay, promotion, supervisor, and co-workers. Furthermore, internal locus of control was related to variables reflecting commitment, including: affective organizational commitment, hours worked, company-record attendance, and turnover. Their research potentially correlates with the constructs in this research; however, it is noted that their research is more focused on cognitive measures than affect.

Examining the relations between work locus of control and two different forms of organizational commitments, affective and continuance, discovered that internality was associated with affective commitment and externality with higher levels of continuance commitment (Coleman, Irving, & Cooper, 1999). Similarly, when investigating commitment to change in an organization, internal locus of control were more likely to have high affective and normative commitment to change, whereas participants with more external locus of control were more likely to have high continuance commitment to change (Chen and Wang 2007). High levels of continuance commitment have been found to be related to lower levels of performance and organizational citizenship behaviour (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, & Goffin, 1989); hence, it can be argued that externals being more committed for continuance would be less happiness at work.

Semmer (1996) argued that low levels of hardiness, poor self-esteem, an external locus of control, and an avoidant coping style typically constitute the profile of a stress-prone individual. The results from the burnout research (Maslach et al., 2001) confirm this personality profile. Since engagement is viewed as opposite of burnout, it can be concluded that empirical evidence exists for a positive relationship between internality and engagement. The concept must be viewed with a pinch of salt as burnout and engagement as opposite ends of the same coin is challenged by the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003), and subsequent correlations attempting to prove burnout and engagement (MBI and UWES) have concluded to be elusive (Leiter and Maslach 2017).

Examining locus of control and job satisfaction, Spector (1982) suggested that individuals with an internal locus of control should be more satisfied in their jobs because they are less likely to stay in a dissatisfying job and are more likely to be successful in organizations. Judge et al (2001) reported a significant correlation of job satisfaction with internal locus of control expectancy in a meta-analysis study.

In reviewing more specific studies of locus of control and job satisfaction, it is noted that significant correlations are frequently reported. For example, jobs which are highly demanding and low in autonomy are found to result in greater job dissatisfaction for externals than for internals (Parkes 1991; Rothmann and Agathagelou 2000; Spector 1986). When stress levels are high within a job situation, individuals who have an external locus of control tend to experience job dissatisfaction (Näswall et al., 2005). Rahim and Psenicka (1996) found that individuals with an external locus of control were unable to handle the pressure, uncertainty and challenges of a demanding working environment. Research respondents a study in Taiwan accounting firm reported that those who had an internal locus of control perceived lower levels of job stress, reported higher levels of job satisfaction and job performance (Chen and Silverthorne 2008b). Externals had low work satisfaction scores (especially with regard to organizational processes, personal relationships and organizational design and structure), and higher occupational stress scores (on the subscales managerial role, career and achievement, and organizational climate) in Kirkcaldy et al.'s (1993) study.

Job in general scale (S. S. Russell et al., 2004), a validated measure of generalized job satisfaction, is proven to have 0.68 correlation with intention to leave. Additionally, organizational commitment is a measure of job continuance. Findings of locus of control and job turnover (Ahn, 2015) which revealed internality to lead to significantly higher job to job transition and annual wage growth presents a possible inverse relationship between job-satisfaction and internality. However, locus of control and job to non-employment turnover was found to be significant.

In conclusion of the review of the association of locus of control with happiness at work, scholars agree that internality is associated with a variety of positive outcomes in the work environment. The researcher agrees that the personality trait of locus of control provides a useful theoretical perspective to enhance our explanation and prediction of employees' workplace attitudes and behaviour (Ng, Eby, Sorensen, &

Feldman, 2005). Nonetheless, this research's argument that the work environment dictates the suitability of locus of control expectancy of an employee remains largely untested in academia till now. In a discussion about autonomy and union as two opposite drives for humans, an environment of autonomy allows for internals to be happy at work (Morling & Fiske, 1999). Similarly, in a discussion about autonomy and union as two opposite drives for humans, an environment of inter-dependence (union) was concluded to allow for externals to be happy at work (Morling & Fiske, 1999).

4.3 Organizational Characteristics

Interactional psychology assumes that continuous interaction between the person and the environment causes behaviour (Terborg, 1981), and regards behaviour as a function of the person and the environment. The entire field of psychological includes the influence of the social environment based on the person's subjective experience (Morling and Fiske 1999). Literature on person-organization fit fundamentally draws on interactional psychology perspective in which aspects of both individual and situation combine to influence an individual's response to a given situation (O'Reilly and Chatman 1986; Chatman 1989); for example, how aspects of individual values affect the individuals' attitudinal and behavioural responses to performance indicators and targets.

Jobs in different departments in a firm may vary greatly, and emphasis on "measurement of job characteristics... require... moving beyond crude occupational surrogates to measures which actually reflect the characteristics of a particular job as it is structured in a particular organizational setting" is recommended (Lofquist and Dawis 1969, p.394). O'Reilly (1991) argues that previous research has generally failed to describe people and situations in a comprehensive manner along commensurate and relevant dimensions. This failure has hindered the development and empirical assessment of coherent theories of person-situation interaction.

The researcher regards an approach of categorizing many aspects of organizational characteristics to be an overwhelming task, with additional challenge to rightly choosing certain characteristics over others, a subjective approach in categorizing them together, and most difficult to find these categories in a test scenario. Additionally, such an approach is also destined to attract criticism from scholars for lack of comprehensiveness, and to be too theoretical an approach, as such an environment may not exist in real life. A more practical approach can be taken from existing typical characteristics of organizations that are identified in theory of organizational development. Originally based on group dynamics, and practice related to generating planned change, the theory of organizational development theorizes changes in organizations – “a new state of things different from the old” (French and Bell 1995, p.3). These theories categorize organizations in their state of development, where at each stage the organization exhibits typical characteristics; hence, allowing an opportunity to classify organizations based on a wide, organic, and naturally existing combination of characteristics for the research.

4.3.1 Organizational Lifecycle

Researched for decades, there is consensus that organizational development typically follows a set path (Adizes 1979; Greiner 1998; Shaver and Scott 1991; Quinn and Cameron 1983; Miller and Friesen 1984). While prevalence of similar characteristics are proven at any stage, and inter-stage differences are made evident; it must be noted that the sequence of the stages is not always followed (Miller and Friesen 1984), indicating the ability for development and regression along the stages in each model or progress up it. Additionally, Adizes (1996) also identifies traps that may hinder the development of an organization along the business lifecycle, with the risk of the organization getting stuck at a stage. The traps may even result in death of the organization.

Quinn and Cameron (1983), based on literature of nine different theories of organizational lifecycle models, developed a summary models incorporating overlapping aspects of the different models. It is a four-stage model starting with the business idea in the 'entrepreneurial stage'. It is a stage of birth of lots of ideas; visions are conceived and fantasies are born. Subsequent to the generation of ideas, a high level of commitment is still needed to develop a sense of mission for the entrepreneur.

This pushes the organization into the 'collectivity stage', where long hours are spent to innovate using an informal communication and structure system within the organization to launch the business and undertake the risk of setting-up an organization. This stage demands formation of a niche, and marshalling of resources. There may be little planning and coordination; however, entrepreneurial activities thrive as resources are collected, and a niche market is targeted which allows for development of a commitment towards the business idea.

Once operational, the formalization of rules and constructs stable structures within the organization that establishes processes. The 'formalisation and control stage' marks a step towards conservatism and institutionalization which can lead to risk averseness and lower creativity and innovation within the organization.

Further development of the organizational rules and control system pushes the organization into the 'structural elaboration stage'. Elaboration of structures allows for concrete control systems, and ensure specialization of staff. Attempts to avoid diseconomies of scale may entail decentralization, and domain expansion to allow for adaptation and renewal of the organization to encourage growth for the organization that may have been hindered due to risk averseness and lack of innovation (Quinn and Cameron 1983).

Quinn and Cameron (1983) state that at the time of their research, none of the other nine theories of business lifecycle elaborate on the aging process in an organization except Adizes (1979). It is for this reason that their summary theory does not elaborate on the aging process either. Furthermore, Quinn and Cameron (1983) acknowledge that empirical research has not been forthcoming to validate various models of lifecycle development.

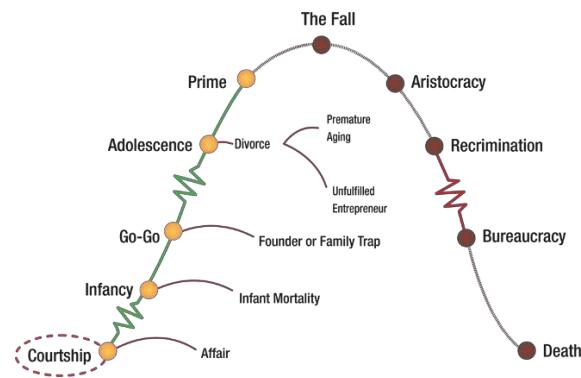


FIGURE 7: ADIZES BUSINESS LIFECYCLE

SOURCE: [HTTP://WWW.ADIZES.COM/COURTSHIP/](http://www.adizes.com/courtship/)

The Adizes lifecycle model (Adizes, 1979), is divided into left (depicted in green in the diagram above and right (depicted in red in the diagram below), the ‘growing’ and ‘aging’ stages (Figure 7).

In the beginning, the entrepreneur has an idea that he or she begins to fall in love with; hence, termed ‘courtship’. The company does not exist at this stage; so, it is a time of much talk and no action. If the commitment to the idea is weak, the idea goes no further than being an idea, and the entrepreneur is said to have an ‘affair’. The business idea is typically abandoned due to over-thinking, stalling, or most frequently, due to an inability to commit to one idea out of several that the founder may have considered. If the business is conceived, it moves on to ‘infancy’ – a stage focused on risk, action, and results in moving from crisis to crisis.

The company is said to need a ‘product champion’ (Adizes and Naiman 1988), someone who is committed to the launch of the enterprise with an unbelievable level of devotion. At this point ‘infant mortality’ can destroy the business if: the business idea is commercially unviable, there is weak and overly autocratic leadership, or frequently due to unavailability of necessary resources, such as cash. After infancy, the company starts to see the success of the wild years of the ‘go-go’ phase, where strong sales and cash flows can bring ‘arrogance’ into the business. Many opportunities are pursued, and energy may be wasted on a lack of focus.

While the infancy problem of negative cash flows may be resolved, a highly autocratic leadership, and an inability to let go of control can spread the entrepreneur’s efforts too thin, resulting in the ‘founder’s trap’, where employees are frequently left without training, direction, and authority to make decision; thus, trapping the business, and preventing growth. If the ‘family or founder’s trap’ is avoided, the organisation reaches the ‘adolescence’ stage, marked by in-fighting between administration and entrepreneurial sovereignty.

As the founder aims to relinquish control by employing administration staff that establish new policies and procedures, the founder is frequently the first to violate them, pushing the organization into a leadership

crisis. Relinquishing control by the founder can grow the organization, but it may lead to an 'unfulfilled entrepreneur', where the founder divorces the business, as the business takes on control of itself. When the organisation was young, it was very flexible, but not necessarily controllable. Younger stages of the organizational lifecycle are associated with a level of flexibility of an organization, while the older stages reflect controllable behaviour.

It is 'prime' that simultaneously brings the advantages of both young and old, flexibility and controllability, creativity and functionality, and growth and predictability to the organization. This is regarded as the aim of management as provision of a balance of growth and rejuvenation in order to keep the organization in this stage of the lifecycle.

A lack of rejuvenation or growth can lead to stagnation of the organizational growth, which can lead to a state of stability, marking the start of the aging process, 'the fall'. A 'stable' organization develops a sense of security due to its stable position in the market place, halting creativity and urgency, and placing emphasis on orderliness and conservative approaches to ensure that past achievement is not endangered. Thus, a lack of excitement, risk averseness, and an increasingly formal atmosphere develops.

Continuing the path of increasing self-preservation and distancing from clients, the formalization process leads to formal dress codes, and elaborate use of space, formalized inter-personal relationships between colleagues; and, the image of a cash heavy 'aristocracy' is reached. The organization has little desire for changes, besides 'artificial face-lifts' (Adizes and Naiman 1988), and setting-up of control systems that require more attention from employees than customers.

In the ageing phases, the organization also faces bureaucratization as a repetitive problem. Increasing political issues within an organization come at the expense of customer service and focus. Future development of control systems, and customer neglect, can push the organization into 'early bureaucracy'. This stage is marked with fears of lack of control, to which the management responds by instillation of further control systems. Also, risk averseness and diseconomies of scale drive away any possibilities of growth, pushing the company into a stage of 'bureaucracy', and finally 'death'.

An understanding of business lifecycle is an attempt to generate a tool for forecasting future developments to allow for diagnosis and treatment of typical organizational behavioural problems, so as to allow for successful transition into the subsequent stages of the organizational development process. As such, the theory presents clear means for identification of each stage in which an organization. For example, Adizes (Adizes and Naiman 1988) states that "size and time are not causes of growth". Each stage is said to have unique challenges that require particular management and leadership abilities.

Despite its commercial popularity, the lack of a validated scale can make the use of Adizes judgement criteria to be subjective. Lester et al. (2003) have created a scale that has been academically-validated and

available for use without copy right concerns unlike the Adizes (1996) research. The scale has five stages discussed below:

The first is the entrepreneurial or birth stage, similar to Quinn and Cameron (1983) with existence marking the beginning of organizational development. As termed, the focus is on sufficient number of clients and repeat clients to support the existence of the business. Control of decisions and ownership are in the hands of one, or a few, and the organizational structure is very simple (Lester et al., 2003).

The next stage is survival, reached as the firm moves into growth mode (Adizes, 1979), formalizing some of organizational structure (Quinn and Cameron 1983), and establish its own distinctive competencies and specializations (Barney, 1991). In search of this competitive advantage, goals are formulated routinely that focus on revenue, aiming to continue operations, and financial growth. Several traps (Adizes, 1996) can exist at this stage: the organizations can grow, or earn only marginal returns failing to grow, while others may become trapped due to insufficient revenue for survival (Lester and Parnell 2008). Most organizations in this stage are structured in a non-complex, more functional manner, and decision-making is more decentralized (Lester et al., 2003).

If the organization avoids the traps, it reaches maturity (Adizes, 1979), the 'success stage' (Lester et al., 2003). Formalization and control through bureaucracy are introduced (Quinn and Cameron 1983) often criticised for having 'red tape'. Job descriptions, policies and procedures, and hierarchical reporting relationships become much more formal (Lester and Parnell 2008). Having passed the survival test, the organization may target new territories or business spin-offs. Slowly, the top management team focuses on planning and strategy, leaving daily operations to middle managers. Organizational structure is varied, but many firms tend to be organized by product or geographic divisions due to the need to serve wide markets (Lester et al., 2003).

The stage of 'renewal' (Lester et al., 2003) is a strive to return to a leaner time and avoid dis-economies of scale being faced due to lack of collaboration and teamwork, seeking a return to innovation and creativity. The organization is seen to be large and bureaucratic with needs of customers placed above those of organizational members (Lester et al., 2003). Some organizations utilize the matrix structure to assure the success of collaboration and teamwork.

The last stage is decline, characterized by politics and power, as organizational members become more concerned with personal goals than they are with organizational goals. For some organizations, the inability to meet customer demands of a former stage can lead them to a period of decline. There may be lack of profit and a loss of market share. Control and decision-making tend to return to a handful of people, as the desire for power and influence in earlier stages has eroded the viability of the organization (Lester et al., 2003).

Adizes (1988) regarded new departments to be like new organizations; so, the choice of large organizations with sufficient departments presented an ideal sample for the research. Since the study aims at assessment of the position of different departments in the organization, the questionnaire needed to be changed in phrasing, e.g. 'organization' replaced by 'department', comparison between organizations will need to be amended to comparisons between departments, and since the firm being researched is a partnership the reference to shareholders and directors needed to be amended to partners of the firm. The amendments to the questionnaire are included in (Appendix 13.1) and tracked for reference. Confirmations were sought from the authors in respect of changes being proposed and if these would alter the validity of the scale in their opinion. Dr. J. Parnell (personal communication, May 29, 2018) confirmed that in his opinion these would not change the validity of the scale. Additionally, Dr. Lester (personal communication, June 2, 2018) accepted the same with reservations due to risk of any confusion for the respondents, and recommended retaining the word 'organization'. However, subsequent communications (Lester, personal communication, June 7, 2018) allowed for his support for the same subject to clarity in whatever publications that may follow of the changes made to the wordings.

4.3.2 Locus of Control and Organizational Lifecycle

Adizes and Naiman (1988, p. 18) states: "In order for the birth of the organization... the more committed he or she [the founder] is the better. However, the time will come when he or she needs to be realistic and known how to let go", or he or she may head for the founder's trap, curbing growth of the organization. Adizes and Naiman (1988, p. 49) regarded "adolescence is a critical transition point. A benefit to the growth through a change in personality trait at this point can be expected. The company does not need someone like the founder. "It needs an administrator who is a totally different animal...", clearly reflects the need for an alternative personality type for employees and leaders in adolescent organizations, compared to those at earlier stages of the organizational lifecycle. This research tests this relationship for locus of control personality trait, and if a specific expectancy can optimize happiness of the employees at work, which has direct repercussions regarding whether the employee would be an asset, or be a hindrance, at different positions on the organizational lifecycle (Zelenski, Murphy, & Jenkins, 2008).

The relationship between locus of control and entrepreneurship has been addressed by several scholars. They concluded that internality is strongly associated with entrepreneurship in small firms which incorporates innovation, pro-activity, risk taking, and personal direct control, all aspects which are traits of internals (Lefcourt, 1976b; D. Miller, Kets de, & Toulouse, 1982). As such, it was anticipated that the same relationship would exist for internals and departments in organizations in early stages of the business lifecycle.

While overall the statistics may prove internals to be more successful at business seeding, these entrepreneurs with an internal locus of control personality trait were said to follow a typical style of entrepreneurship, while externals were said to follow an alternative style, which can be more successful

subject to the industry environment. For example, Spector (1982) discovered the trend for internals to undertake innovative strategies, whereas their external counterparts tend to prefer low-cost strategies. Similarly, a stable industry environment was seen appropriate for internals due to the scrupulous planning propensity, while a dynamic industry more suitable for externals due to their ability to manoeuvre well in chance dependent scenarios (Wijbenga and Witteloostuijn 2007). Thus, academic literature vastly agrees of an association between entrepreneurial characteristics and locus of control expectancy (Brockhaus 1994; Cromie and O'Donaghue 1992; Shaver and Scott 1991; Perry 1990; Kaufmann et al. 1995) and proposes antecedents, moderators, and mediators to this relationship.

Larger and older organisations are mostly characterized by inertial forces that allow for operations to run smoothly within the organization, diminishing the need for active driving force of individuals, since decision making authority is delegated by means of formal structure. In large organisations, operations become institutionalized, which are difficult to change (Hambrick and Finkelstein 1987). As such, it is also anticipated that there may be a relationship between expectancy and department in organizations dependent on their stages on the business lifecycle.

Research with the big six accounting firms¹ examined the influence of systematic differences in levels of structure in the firms on auditor's performance (Hyatt and Prawitt 2001; Prawitt 1995). Their research concluded that internals tend to perform more efficiently in environments that allow them more control over their actions; thus, in less structured firms. It remains to be tested if this entails that externals performed better when more control is imposed upon them (Rotter, 1966; Spector, 1982). Since a primary characteristic of an organization progressing across lifecycle is an increase in structure (Adizes, 2017), it can be expected that the traits borne by individuals with an internal locus of control may act as hindrance to the organization to achieve success, as internality may be most useful for early stages of growth in an organization.

Spector (1982) suggested that locus of control might be a useful selection variable based on the argument that internals are better suited for positions that require independence, whereas externals may have superior person-job fit when the position requires little independent action, or requires strict obedience to rules or commands. However, (Coleman et al., 1999) states this as premature, deeming further research as necessary for establishing the relationships, hence supporting this research conducted.

5 Research Question

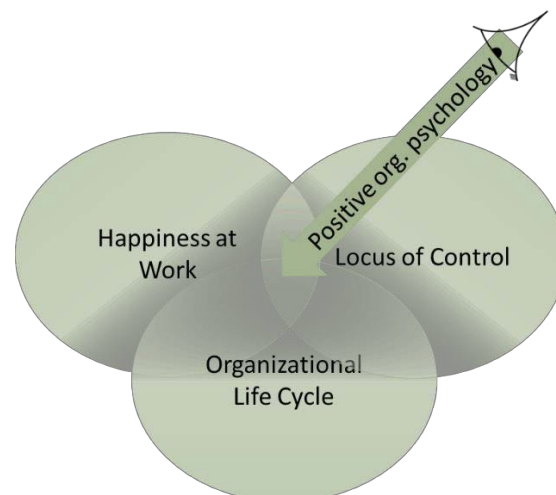
As the literature review highlights the largest, and fast growing problem of incapacity to work as depression (World Health Organization, 2017), with major dispositional contributors as: genetic predisposition (A. Weiss et al., 2008) and psychological traits (Judge et al., 2002), the field of

¹ The closure of Arthur Andersen due to Enron scandal, and merger of Price Waterhouse with Coopers & Lybrand caused the decrease from big six to the current big four currently.

organizational management can address the problem through research into psychological traits that correlate with constructs in the field that relate to happiness at work (Fisher, 2010), namely: job satisfaction (H. M. Weiss, 2002), affective organizational commitment (Mowday, 1998) and engagement (Kahn, 1990).

Research in the field has revealed correlations between psychological traits and many of the constructs of happiness at work, with endorsements for further research (Judge et al., 2002). While meta-analysis of the psychological traits reveals a significant correlation, and locus of control also concluded a significant relationship with job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2001), several options to enhance findings are identified: use of locus of control scale (Rotter, 1966), segregating organizational characteristics to allow for exploration of job-organization fit (Verquer et al., 2003) by use of the business lifecycle (Lester et al., 2003), and the use of three constructs for happiness at work collectively (Fisher, 2010) (Figure 8).

FIGURE 8: THE GAP IDENTIFIED FOR THIS RESEARCH



Generated through problematisation (Alvesson and Sandberg 2011), and developed through the literature review (Rubin and Babbie 2011), the researcher proposes to addresses the following question:

General Objective: Investigating best fit for employees based on their locus of control expectancy to the position of the department in the organisational lifecycle to optimize happiness at work

Quantitative Research Questions:

- Is there a relationship between the position of the department in the organizational lifecycle and level of happiness at work?
- Does locus of control expectancy of an employee moderate this relationship?

Qualitative Research Question: What aspects of the department contribute towards this relationship for employees with different locus of control expectancies?

Research Question: Investigating the relationship, between organizational lifecycle and happiness at work for employees with different locus of control expectancies, and its antecedents.

5.1 Research Hypotheses

The Oxford Dictionary of English (Oxford University Press, 2005, p. 855) defines hypothesis as “a supposition or proposed explanation made on the basis of limited evidence as a starting point for further investigation”. “A hypothesis is a proposition that is stated in testable form and predicts a particular relationship between two (or more) variables” (Bailey, 1987, p. 41). In other words, for quantitative research, if it is anticipated that a relationship exists, it is first stated as a hypothesis, and then the hypothesis is tested. “A hypothesis test is used to answer questions about particular values for a population parameter, or particular relationships in a population, based on the information in the sample data” (Utts and Heckard 2007, p.495).

The following hypotheses will be tested following the collection of data during the research:

The null Hypothesis: There is no relationship between the stage of development of the department in the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work of the employees.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a relationship between the stage of development of the department in the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work of the employees.

For testing the relationship for different locus of control expectancies, the hypotheses are as follows:

The null Hypothesis: There is no relationship between the stage of development of the department in the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work of employees with an internal locus of control expectancy.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a relationship between the stage of development of the department in the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work of employees with an internal locus of control expectancy.

The null Hypothesis: There is no relationship between the stage of development of the department in the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work of employees with a balanced locus of control expectancy.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a relationship between the stage of development of the department in the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work of employees with a balanced locus of control expectancy.

The null Hypothesis: There is no relationship between the stage of development of the department in the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work of employees with an external locus of control expectancy.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a relationship between the stage of development of the department in the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work of employees with an external locus of control expectancy.

6 Research Paradigm

Originating from the Greek word ‘paradeigma’ which means pattern, research paradigm denotes a conceptual framework of the research. This framework provides a convenient model for examining solutions to the research problem identified (Burrell and Morgan 1979). The paradigm refers to various research cultures, each with a set of beliefs, values, and assumptions, out of which research is conducted. Each researcher can identify with which their own paradigm based on their philosophical stance, one with which he or she can align their ideology, nature and conduct of their research.

6.1 Philosophical Stance

Grounded in science, with a career in the field of finance, and over a decade long interest in psychology, the researcher’s philosophical stance is very objective. Since science proves that the world predates individuals, it confirms existence of phenomena before human consciousness. As such, the researcher believes that the phenomena shall continue to exist post human consciousness; therefore, can exist irrespective of humans’ attempts to understand it or not. While cognitive efforts from individuals change perceptions and understanding of these phenomena, the world continues to exist, made up of hard tangible phenomena that are believed by the researcher to be relatively immutable structures (Gill and Johnson 2010). Hence, the researcher’s ontology is one of realism (Burrell and Morgan 1979).

Much of the research in organisational science is based on the assumption that reality is objective and awaiting discovery. The researcher’s epistemology is founded on similar – one of positivism. While the researcher’s basic belief of paradigms is grounded in positivism, by viewing the realism with a critical eye, and including a qualitative aspect to the research method to add depth and voice to this research’s findings, this research has expanded the researcher’s epistemological view in this research into post-positivism (Guba and Lincoln 1994).

Based on researcher’s philosophical stance which is grounded in realism, this research sought valid knowledge based on concrete reality; hence, must be discovered through observations and measurements (Giddens, 2008) even through the constructs in reference to this research are arguably intangible or subjective. However, the existence of validated constructs within the concept of happiness at work, locus of control, and positioning of the departments on the organizational lifecycle, allows for research on the topic with such a philosophical stance – using quantitative method (Neuman, 2005).

On the fundamental nature of humans, the prominent question is whether the researcher believes humans are the controller or the controlled. With reference to researcher’s extreme internal locus of control expectancy, the researcher’s perception of control is that it lies within the individual. Based on this perception, relationship between man and society is seen as deterministic; the world has causal relationships that explain the patterns to social behaviour (Fiss, 2011). Hence this research conducted is

predominantly quantitative, aiming at developing deductive knowledge contribution to the field, and the open ended query regarding happiness at work allows for some scope of inductive analysis for this research (Sullivan and Venter 2010).

6.2 Research Methodology

Holden and Lynch (2004, p. 397) suggest: “not be methodologically led, rather that methodological choice should be consequential to the researcher’s philosophical stance and the social science phenomenon to be investigated”. Forecasting research, laboratory experiments, large scale surveys, modelling and simulations are methodologies that are said to be strictly positivistic, with minimal room for interpretation (Saunders et al., 2012). In social sciences, the most viable methodology from the list above is one of large-scale surveys.

Although the researcher’s philosophical stance is one of objectivism, few researchers today make extreme assumptions, with most business research has been from a more moderate objective position (Holden and Lynch 2004). Due to the subjective nature of the social science phenomenon being investigated, the researcher regarded it important to extend this research method to a more postpositive paradigm, and certainly for the discussion and conclusions of this research to embrace subjectivity of the subject matter. Hence, the researcher accepts that the causal relationship can only be imperfectly and probabilistically determined (Guba and Lincoln 1994).

While the main research methodology proposed the use of surveys, which aligned well with the paradigm, a second methodology of an open-ended question for qualitative analysis method was also undertaken. This second methodology allowed for voice and depth to the research, as it explored the lived, work experiences of the research respondents (Guba and Lincoln 1994). This research uses quantitative analysis which is followed by analysis of the open-ended question to help explain the quantitative findings for obtaining explanations and richer insights. The approach towards analysis of the open-ended enquiry followed the quantitative analysis questions, making the approach an explanatory sequential mixed method design (Sauro, 2015), where the quantitative data is much larger than the qualitative data, and the qualitative data helps to explain the quantitative data.

6.2.1 Survey

Researchers with a psychological stance of positivism tend to employ quantitative research methodology, using experimental methods to test hypothetical generalizations, as they measure causal relationships between variables (Golafshani, 2003). As such, this research’s strategy employed will be the survey strategy with the use of questionnaires. A questionnaire is a techniques of data collection in which each person is asked to respond to the same set of questions in a pre-determined order (de Vaus, 1995). It is one

of the most widely used data collection techniques, because it is an efficient way of collecting responses from large samples (Saunders et al., 2012).

The research hypotheses are dependent on the position of the organization in the organizational lifecycle (Lester & Parnell, 2008). Partners of the firms were requested to complete the questionnaire to place their respective departments at a position along the organizational lifecycle (Lester et al., 2003). Additionally, employees in the department completed a questionnaire to report on their locus of control expectancy (Rotter, 1966), and happiness at work (Fisher, 2010) for the researcher to obtain the data to test the correlation.

Constructs of: job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, and engagement were recommended as a measure for the umbrella concept of happiness at work (Fisher, 2010). After a review of the options available for measuring each of the constructs, Meyer et al.'s (1993) measure of organizational commitment (Appendix 13.2.2.2), Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003) (Appendix 13.2.2.3) and Job in General Scale for Job Satisfaction (Appendix 13.2.2.1) were chosen for the questionnaire. These are discussed in detail in the literature review section of the dissertation in their respective headings.

In respect of locus of control, the construct can be reliably calculated using abbreviated Rotter's (1966) Internal-External scale with thorough validity (Valecha & Ostrom, 1974). Unlike the option of two choices in the Rotter (1966) I-E scale, Andrisani and Nestle (1976) allowed the respondents to score each statement from one to four, based on the level of conviction towards the statement. Joe and Jahn (1973) did similar by requesting intensity of their choice on a six point scale. Klockars and Varnum (1975) test of the scale illustrated that a range was more coherent than two widely separated points, and Adeyemi-Bello (2001) found the scale confused individuals who did not feel polarized but agreed with both statements. Despite the above optional variances to the scale, Rotter's (1966) I-E Scale cannot be challenged for its robustness in its validity for measurement of generalized expectancy (Adeyemi-Bello, 2001); as such, the abbreviated version of the scale was used (Valecha & Ostrom, 1974).

The researcher used pre-tested and validated constructs that formed the questionnaire; as such, personal input from the researcher to the questionnaire is limited. Nonetheless, it is highly recommended that questionnaires must be pretested; that is, 'piloted' on a small sample of people characteristic of those in the survey (Leung, 2001). Once the questionnaire was generated, the researcher piloted it on a sample of people as a trial run (Saunders et al., 2012) and found that the initially used faces scale of job satisfaction (Kunin, 1955) was found by the participant's as limiting their expression of their emotions amongst all the variety of emojis currently used for expressing emotions. Emojis could have been introduced to the scale; however, this leads to the additional difficulty of assessment of meaning to emojis which are found not to be standardized (H. Miller et al., 2016). Other comments regarding the surveys from the pilot study were

regarding clarity, proposal of change of words or omission of certain questions to the surveys which was not incorporated as the surveys are validated.

6.2.2 Sampling

The idea in sampling is: “extrapolation from the part to the whole – from ‘the sample’ to ‘the population’” (Freedman, 2004, p. 986). Methods for choosing samples are called designs. A good design uses probability methods to minimize subjective judgement by the researcher, and chooses the sample to fairly represent the population for legitimate generalization of the theory obtained from the sample.

Since the research question aims at understanding happiness at work at different levels of development on an organizational lifecycle, the generalizability sought is one of applicability to an average employee in any organization. The option for type of organization and industries in which they operate are many. Brownell (2014), Reed et al. (Reed, Kratchman, & Strawser, 1994), Prawit (1995), Tsui and Gul (1996), Hyatt and Prawit (2001), Bernardi (2012) have all based their research sample on accounting firms when investigating the relationship with locus of control. Spector (1982) concluded that there is some evidence of the significance of locus of control in accounting firms. As such, the accounting firms were the target sample for this research.

In seeking organizations that are at different stages on the organizational lifecycle, a note from Adizes (1988, p. 28) emphasized that “new departments or spin-offs are like new organisations...”. This presents a useful alternative to a great number of organizations to be included in the study, and substituting these for a large number of departments within an organization; using departments as the sample unit that are positioned differently on the organization lifecycle.

This option for allocating departments to the organizational lifecycle was raised with Dr. Lester and Dr. Parnell for the use of their scale (Lester and Parnell 2008; Lester et al. 2003). Dr. Parnell, a co-author to the papers referenced and scale being used stated: “In my view, the changes you made (department vs. organization) do not change the validity of the scale. When respondents read “organization,” they might consider the entire firm or just their business unit anyway. In this respect, it is reasonable to consider the stage of their departments. Others might disagree, but I do not see any validity problems” (Parnell, Personal communication, 29 May 2018). A precaution was also suggested by Dr. Parnell to enquire of department size, function and history. This was done through use of employee count in the department, age of the department, and business unit of the departments e.g. Audit, Taxation, Company Secretarial and others which allowed for triangulation with the stage of development the department was found on the scale.

Dr. Don Lester (personal communication, 4 June 2018), the lead author of the research referenced (Lester and Parnell 2008; Lester et al. 2003), raised two concerns regarding the matter: firstly, the risk that this “would lead to false results due to the more limited scope of what you would be measuring”, and secondly,

the risk that amendments proposed to the scale may “confuse respondents”. Highlighting to Dr. Lester the industry for the research, and the fact that each department in accounting firms acts as a separate business unit, the concerns were resolved, with precautions highlighted by Dr, Lester (personal communication, 7 June 2018) requesting to: “target the respondent you will get valid results”, hence partners of the firm with highest authority were targeted as respondents. Dr. Don Lester (personal communication, 4 June 2018) added: “If you feel you must alter the scale, make sure that is made very clear in whatever publications follow”, hence the changes to the scale have been tracked in Appendix 13.1.

The idea of using departments instead of organizations is further encouraged due to the fact that departments within the same organization will have several aspects in common, leading to a dominant variable of position on the organizational lifecycle; thus, limiting the variables that can distract the results for the constructs being investigated (Price, 1997). As such, large accounting firms with multiple departments were sought as samples for the research.

In ethnographic research, the importance of “getting in and getting along” (Kirk and Miller 1986, p.62) cannot be undermined for gaining useful and accurate information. The researcher had hoped that access and establishing rapport will be possible for the researcher, being a fellow of the Institute of Chartered Accountants in England and Wales, and had expected credibility with the accounting firms. A nationwide sample was also noted to be useful as large samples are deemed important for a research as they lead to more reliable results (Barat, 2009). Hence, an on-line questionnaire on Graduate School of Business survey approved software, ‘selectsurvey.net’, was launched, and the completion of it was promoted by liaising with the human resources departments for the employee questionnaire, and directly with the partners of the firm (with the approval of the Chairman), for the questionnaire about the position of the department on the organizational lifecycle.

In discussions with one of the top 10 accounting firms (E. Lansberg, 30 July 2018, Personal Interview), where the study was conducted, it was agreed that ‘level of engagement’, if maximised, would lead to higher performance in departments in the firms. This was expected as a known problem for the firms. As such, commercial interest in vigor, dedication and absorption for the firms was abundant, and also in understanding the reasons (environmental, or departmental) that allow happiness at work in the firms was noted to be of interest to the firm.

Leedy and Ormrod (2005) emphasise that individuals who should be selected for the research are people who will be able to provide appropriate and relevant information. The researcher believes that the group chosen present a group of suitable respondents to the questionnaire based on literacy (computer and language) and competence. The questionnaire did not require translation, which may have lowered the validity of the scales. All research was conducted in English.

In light of this sampling methodology, this research does not presume to be representative for the world population in general (Peshkin, 1993). The sample potentially represented a sub-group of the population

that worked in the accounting firms, or extrapolated to employees in large partnerships, such as legal firms. Further details regarding limitations of the research are discussed in the relevant chapter in the dissertation.

6.2.3 Data Analysis

Data is a plural word referring to the number or non-numerical labels collected from a set of entities (Utts and Heckard 2007). The primary task of the data analysis is the identification of common themes. Since the data is collected by the researcher, and not available in the public domain, the data collected for this research is regarded as primary data (Leedy and Ormrod 2005).

6.2.3.1 Quantitative Data

The quantitative data source is from two surveys. Firstly, the stage of development or position of the department in the organizational lifecycle (Lester et al., 2003), and secondly, the level of happiness at work (Fisher, 2010) and the employees' locus of control expectancy (Rotter, 1966). The data collected achieved: identification of the stage of the department organizational lifecycle (Lester et al., 2003) from the most reliable source in the firm, the partner in-charge of the department, and the employee's locus of control expectancy (Rotter, 1966), affective organizational commitment level (Meyer et al., 1993), engagement level (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003; Seppälä et al. 2009) and job satisfaction level (Ironson et al., 1989; S. S. Russell et al., 2004) from the horse's mouth, the employees themselves.

Due to the use of Likert scales (Aguinis et al., 2009), all data obtained is ordinal. Ordinal data are those which the assigned numbers reflects a particular order or sequence (Leedy and Ormrod 2005). Therefore, Spearman Rank Order Correlation analysis is used in the data analysis section to test the correlation between stage of development of the department, employee' locus of control expectancy, and happiness at work constructs (Raubenheimer, 2007, Personal Interview; Dr. K. Ramaboa, 5 February 2019, Personal Interview). Spearman's correlation is a rank-based correlation measure; it is non-parametric and does not rest upon an assumption of normality. Spearman Rank Order Correlation examines the extent to which differences in one characteristic or variable is related to differences in one or more other characteristics or variables (Leedy and Ormrod 2005). A correlation is a statistic that measures the strength and direction of a liner relationship between two variables. The decision whether to accept or reject the null hypothesis is based on a designated level of significance (p-value). As standard, a 1% significance level will be used to assess the result as significant. If the data set rejected the null hypothesis on a 1% significance level, then a 5% benchmark is used to classify the relationship as significant at 5% level; however, the researcher recognizes the need for caution in drawing conclusion from results obtained at this level of significance (Utts and Heckard 2007) (Table 1).

TABLE 1: BENCHMARKS FOR CONCLUDING STATISTICAL SIGNIFICANCE

Statistical significance	Conclusion
p value < 1%	The null hypothesis rejected at 1% significance level, results regarded as highly significant, depicted with **
1% ≤ p value < 5%	The null hypothesis rejected at 5% significance level, results regarded as significant, depicted with *
p value ≥ 5%	The null hypothesis accepted.

In addition to the above, the conclusions are also dependent on the gradient of the best fit line, depicting the degree of strength of the relationship, shown by the Spearman Rank Order Correlation Coefficient (β). The criteria used to judge the strength of the relationship is summarized (Table 2), with values closer to ± 1 showing higher levels of strength of relationship, and closer to 0 showing weaker relationships.

TABLE 2: BENCHMARK FOR CONCLUDING STRENGTH OF CORRELATION

Spearman Rank Order Correlation Co-efficient	Conclusion
$0 < \beta < \pm 0.2$	Weak relationship
$\pm 0.2 \leq \beta < \pm 0.35$	Medium strength relationship
$\pm 0.35 \leq \beta < \pm 0.5$	Strong relationship
$\pm 0.5 \leq \beta < \pm 1.0$	Very strong relationship
$\beta = \pm 1$	Perfect correlation

Since this research is predominantly quantitative in nature and depends on primary data, it is important to establish the reliability, validity and objectivity thereof (Quinlan et al. 2015; Kumar 2014; Gray 2017; Cresswell and Plano Clark 2011).

Additionally, to test how the relationship between two variables (independent and dependent) is influenced by a third variable, hierarchical regression can be used to check if the introduction of the moderating variables enhances the predictability of the causal relationship (Dr. K. Ramaboa, 5 February 2019, Personal Interview). Should the variable introduced to the model, affect the strength of the relationship between a dependent and independent variable, it is deemed a moderator, denoted by the letter M. This is different from a mediator that influences the independent and dependent variables directly, hence allowing for an influence to the relationship. Since locus of control cannot influence the position of a department in the organizational lifecycle, the variable is tested as a moderator.

6.2.3.1.1 Reliability

Reliability is the consistency with which a measuring instrument yields same results for the same research sample. It is a measure of trustworthiness of the data, and the research's ability to be duplicated and produce the same results (Leedy and Ormrod 2005). Inherently, instruments designed measure psychological characteristics are less reliable than those designed to measure physical phenomenon. As such, inherently, the measurement of locus of control, with its fundamentals based in childhood is a

reliable measure based on the psychological foundation that basic character structures of individuals are fixed by early childhood experiences, and are only changeable through lengthy, and often painful, mediums of psychoanalytical therapy (Hjelle and Ziegler 1976; Freud 1921). While some psychologists such as Erikson (Waterman, 1999) assume a much greater degree of changeability in personality than, for example, Freud, the generalized nature of locus of control (non-situation specific) and a trait being regarded as core self-evaluation (Judge and Bono 2001) assures high levels of reliability.

The measures of happiness at work are highly dictated by genetic predisposition (Arvey et al., 1989; A. Weiss et al., 2008) and personality (Judge and Bono 2001), which are also stable; hence, assurance of reliability. Though consistent over a period of time, these are subject to change based on the antecedents of the constructs. However, since this variability of environmental differences and hope these effect happiness at work is the relationship being questioned in the research, the measurements used are fairly reliable, though it incorporates event-based variations (Weiss and Cropanzano 1996) which is likely to lead to lower reliability than locus of control expectancy.

Positioning of the departments on the organizational lifecycle is non-psychological, and more a physical phenomenon, as such inherently more reliable than insubstantial measures. Nonetheless, the comparative nature of the questions in the survey, from an epistemological point of view, present a more subjective relativists view that argue many equal versions of reality; where each version of reality is considered viable only relative to another view and does not stand ground independently (Holden and Lynch 2004). It is anticipated that since the survey is completed by partners of the firm, that all operate under the same organization, the relative nature of the questions will be responded to in comparison to the organization at large, hence present reliable data.

6.2.3.1.2 *Validity*

Validity refers to the accuracy, meaningfulness and credibility of the measurement instrument (Frey, 2018). Internal validity, or credibility, considers how far the researcher's constructions influence the research process (Gray, 2017). Since the surveys used in this research were academically-tested and validated questionnaires, validity is the credibility of the constructs used.

It is deemed important to ensure that the internal validity of the questionnaires remained for this research conducted (Leung, 2001). Internal consistency reflects the homogeneity of the measure. As such, Cronbach's alpha, a measure of internal consistency, that is, how closely related a set of items are as a group, was conducted for each construct under the umbrella concept of happiness at work (Fisher, 2010). The theoretical value of alpha varies from 0 to 1. As a rule of thumb, constructs require a reliability of 0.70, or higher, with 0.60 as the lowest acceptable threshold (Table 3).

TABLE 3: BENCHMARK FOR CONCLUDING RELIABILITY OF SCALE FROM CRONBACH'S ALPHA VALUES

Cronbach alpha value	Reliability
$0,80 < \alpha < 0,95$	Very good
$0,70 < \alpha < 0,80$	Good
$0,60 < \alpha < 0,70$	Fair

(Saunders et al., 2009)

TABLE 4: CRONBACH'S ALPHA VALUES FOR HAPPINESS AT WORK CONSTRUCTS

Reliability Statistics for Happiness at Work Questionnaire		
Happiness at Work Constructs	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items on the questionnaire
Commitment	.838	6
Engagement	.935	9
Job Satisfaction	.875	8
Happiness at Work	.948	23

While all the above constructs passed the validity requirements (Table 4), it was noted that omitting two questions would enhance the validity (Table 5):

- Commitment: I really feel as if this department's problems are my own.
- Engagement: I get carried away when I'm working.

Due to the limited improvement in Cronbach's Alpha values, it is evident that all the questions in the constructs are valid and representative of the construct as a whole. As such, the data analysis was conducted on all questions in the original construct (without deleting any questions from the survey).

TABLE 5: CRONBACH'S ALPHA VALUE FOR HAPPINESS AT WORK CONSTRUCTS AFTER DELETING TWO QUESTIONS

Amended Reliability Statistics for Happiness at Work Questionnaire		
Happiness at Work Constructs	Cronbach's Alpha	Amended no. of Items on the Questionnaire
Commitment	.869	5
Engagement	.937	8
Job Satisfaction	.875	8
Happiness at Work	.950	21

6.2.3.1.3 Internal Correlations

Since the constructs are seen as contributing to one umbrella concept of happiness at work, it was regarded important to test the relationship in-between them to ensure that these constructs can be confirmed to be operating under the same concept of happiness at work (Fisher, 2010). Since the scales vary in their range, the data was ranked to ensure monotony of the scales. The relationship between these scales are analysed using Spearman Rank Order Correlation, which assesses how well the relationship between two scales can be described using a monotonic function. Highly significant correlations (1% significance levels) of very strong strength (β between ± 0.50 and ± 0.99) provide confidence that the constructs can be combined together to allow for an understanding of the umbrella concept of happiness at work (Table 6).

TABLE 6: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN CONSTRUCTS OF HAPPINESS AT WORK

Spearman Rank Order Correlations				
		COMMITMENT	ENGAGEMENT	SATISFACTION
COMMITMENT	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.677**	.613**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000
	N	369	369	369
VIGOR	Correlation Coefficient	.680**	.929**	.737**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	369	369	369
DEDICATION	Correlation Coefficient	.594**	.935**	.655**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	369	369	369
ABSORPTION	Correlation Coefficient	.568**	.867**	.562**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	369	369	369
ENGAGEMENT	Correlation Coefficient	.677**	1.000	.721**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000
	N	369	369	369
SATISFACTION	Correlation Coefficient	.613**	.721**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.
	N	369	369	369
Correlations of all constructs is significant at 0.01 level (highly significantly correlated) and of very strong strength (β between ± 0.50 and ± 0.99).				

It must be noted that academic research has not yet allowed for an understanding of the degree each of these constructs contribute towards the concept of happiness at work. Nonetheless, the fact that correlations which are strong, but not close to 0.1 (except correlations for the components within the construct of engagement, vigor, dedication and absorption, with the construct of engagement) entails that while the constructs operate under the same umbrella of happiness at work, they are substantially different,

evaluating the concept of happiness at work from different facets of the subject (Dr. K. Ramaboa, 5 February 2019, Personal Interview).

6.2.3.1.4 Data Distribution

Allen et al. (1974) concluded that an internal locus of control is related to greater academic achievement; therefore, due to the academic requirements for the accounting profession, greater prevalence of internals than externals was expected in the firm. The data collected showed locus of control to include internals, those with a balanced locus of control, and externals, with no respondents reporting a 0 or 11 value (which are the minimum and maximum values for the scale) (Joe and Jahn 1973). Despite the analysis technique of Spearman Rank Order Correlation (ρ) used, where normality of the data is not necessary, it is important to note that a fair representation of all expectancies of locus of control formed the data set.

6.2.3.1.5 Business Lifecycle and Locus of Control

Spector (1982) suggested that individuals with an internal locus of control should be more job satisfied because they are less likely to stay in a dissatisfying job due to their proactive nature (Ahn, 2015) and are more likely to be successful in organizations. In reference to this, it was a concern for this research that internals will be abundantly present in departments with a specific position on the organizational development, hence not allow for a normal distribution along the organizational lifecycle. As such, this was tested to check if a relationship existed between position of the department in the organizational lifecycle and locus of control expectancy of the employees using Spearman Rank Order correlation.

The null Hypothesis: There is no relationship between the stage of development of the department in the organizational lifecycle and the employees' locus of control expectancy.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a relationship between the stage of development of the department in the organizational lifecycle and the employees' locus of control expectancy.

TABLE 7: BUSINESS LIFECYCLE AND LOCUS OF CONTROL CORRELATION

Stage of Development	Locus of Control 0-11
Correlation Coefficient	0.072
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.201
N	316

Conclusion: The null hypothesis is accepted. There is no relationship found between locus of control and the stage of development of the department.

6.2.3.2 Qualitative Data

The research design is a quantitative one, using survey methodology. Having an open-ended question in a quantitative questionnaire does not meet the criteria for a mixed methods research design (Hanson et al. 2005; Cresswell and Plano Clark 2011). The majority of the data being collected is quantitative in order to test the hypotheses laid out.

After completion of some demographic questions, and the academically-validated questionnaires of affective organizational commitment level (Meyer et al., 1993), engagement level (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003; Seppälä et al. 2009) and job satisfaction level (Ironson et al., 1989; S. S. Russell et al., 2004) to assess level of happiness at work (Fisher, 2010), the survey page ended with an open-ended question allowing this research's participants the option to comment freely, in respect of the survey completed. The aim of the qualitative research was to allow for an investigation into antecedents to happiness at work. However, as found in the pilot study, the focus on important aspects of happiness at work was lost in the event of a completely open-ended question. As such, in seeking the fundamental antecedents of happiness at work, the top three aspects allowing for happiness at work were queried.

The main disadvantage of using a quantitative approach is that the questions asked are restrictive, forcing respondents to answer in a particular way. The options for answering are finite, which may introduce bias into the responses. Including an open-ended question in the questionnaire mitigates this concern to a certain degree, as it allows respondents to answer freely. In addition to triangulation with the scores on the scales, the quantitative data can therefore be used to supplement and provide depth to the quantitative data. Since the quantitative and qualitative data is used to answer different research sub-questions, it requires integration of the results (Cresswell and Plano Clark 2011; Gray 2017). The analysis of this information will therefore allow the quantitative findings to be confirmed through triangulation, and potentially enhanced.

Analyzing this sort of data is qualitative data analysis, which is fundamentally about understanding people and recognizing patterns. Research methods argue that such data is more likely to: “lead to serendipitous findings and to new integrations; they help researchers get beyond the initial conceptions and to generate or revise conceptual frameworks” (Miles and Huberman 1994, p.1), hence contributing to inductive study (Sullivan and Venter 2010; Lind and Goldkuhl 2007).

The actual method of turning qualitative data into insights is through coding (Bailey, 1987). A system of ‘tagging’ was used. Tagging of the qualitative data involves the following steps: look through qualitative data, identification of repeating themes (e.g. pain points, problems, or appreciations of the department), tagging these repeated themes them with a ‘code’ to make them searchable and countable, evolving the codes by merging or breaking them down to end with themes and an idea of their frequency, elaborating a small set of generalizations, or create new conceptual framework, or theorizing based on the generalizations (Miles and Huberman 1994).

In analyzing antecedents of happiness at work through questioning three most significant aspects that allow or hinder happiness at work, the research aimed to discover the most frequently mentioned aspect that allowed or hindered employees to be happy at work. Additionally, it aimed (in an inductive manner) to investigate the antecedents that may not be frequently present, but lead to the largest impact on the level of happiness at work.

6.3 Ethical Considerations

Since the research involved human subjects in an organization, a close look at ethical implications of the research was deemed necessary. Ethical issues in research fall in four categories: protection from harm, informed consent, right to privacy and honesty with professional colleagues, which are elaborated on below (Leedy and Ormrod 2005).

Both, the organizations participating in the research, and the participants require protection from harm (Saunders and Lewis 2012). For the firm, it is acknowledged that confidential information will be available to the researcher, which can be used by competitors for example to poach staff, duplicate organizational structure, identify department partners, or others stakeholder's information. As such, the researcher ensured that the name of the organization was kept confidential. The research discloses only what is known to be publicity available information, unless explicitly permitted by the organization. The code name of 'M&Ms' was given to the organization, and information access was secured, by storing all of the data on one the University of Cape Town's servers, and ensured be accessible with a password.

With reference to the employees of the firm, the information in respect of their level of happiness at work can be used by the organization to anticipate performance and length of service, which can influence: promotions, salary increments, job security and other consequences for the participants. It was deemed vital to ensure that the participants' information is confidential, and to assure the participants of highest level of confidentiality to allow for honest completion of the questionnaire (Saunders et al., 2012) that the identification of the participants was not requested in completing the survey – the survey did not request name of the participants, or other identification information. While departmental information was requested, the size of the department and sufficient number of employees in each ensured confidentiality for each participant. The organization was informed of the need for confidentiality of the respondents from the start, and that individually-completed surveys would not be made available to the organization, irrespective of the fact that these are not identifiable to an employee.

The above also ensured right to privacy of the participants and the firm. The researcher ensured that, under no circumstances, would data be disclosed, where it was available, e.g., if the participant chose to answer the optional question requiring their email address for future correspondence. It is recognized that this can jeopardize anonymity of this research's participants (Rhodes, 2010) and it was treated as such.

To ensure “protection of human subjects by making informed consent the centrepiece of regulatory attention” (Rhodes, 2010, p. 19), the questionnaire started with a brief of the nature of the study, informing the participants of the voluntary nature of their participation, their right to withdraw or remain engaged with the research, availability of counselling if required, contact details of the researcher and the supervisor (telephone numbers and email addresses), with the option to receive the published research if desired, with the assurance that the participant’s name is not available to the researcher, and would not be mentioned in any future writings or publications. This research was approved by the Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee, which allows further confidence of ethical compliance of this research (M. Sempu, Personal communication, 26 June 2018).

In presentation of the results, the researcher is obliged to always report full findings in an unbiased fashion. In respect of the questionnaire, the analysis was designed prior to completion of the questionnaire to prevent researcher bias. Choice of participants was at the discretion of the individual employee, and not influenced by the researcher or the firm (Utts and Heckard 2007). All employees of the firm were invited to complete the survey. With reference to the open-ended question, auto-coding was used to assist to avoid any personal bias by the researcher in order to ensure honesty with professional colleagues about the findings.

Neuman (2002) regards ethics of a proposed research to be highly dependent on the researcher’s personal moral code. A strong personal moral code is regarded as the best defence against unethical behaviour with regards to research conducted. The researcher is a fellow of the Institute of Chartered Accountants in England and Wales. The institute boasts one of the highest levels of professional ethical standards which bind the researcher in his professional capacity. These professional ethical codes of the researcher provide a sound level of defence against unethical behaviour in conducting the research, particularly in commerce that operates under similar codes of ethics (Rhodes, 2010).

The researcher, having worked in large accounting firms and being a fellow of the Institute of Chartered Accountants in England and Wales, has proximity to the respondents, which can lead to bias. Additionally, potential bias may be present due to the researcher’s strong internal locus of control hence the ability to relate better to internals than externals. Quantitative analysis inherently allows for protection against this bias. In respect of the open-ended question, Leedy and Ormond (2005) assert the importance of suspending judgement, by setting aside preconceived notion and expectations, and that the focus should be on what is written – this requires the researcher to read and code intently. Neutrality of the phrasing of the open question: “OPTIONAL: Having completed the above, is there anything you wish to share?” and auto-coding of the replies allow for this. Additionally, the researcher does not have any gain (monetary or otherwise e.g. employment opportunity) for the purpose of this research, which is deemed important for neutrality of the researcher (Bailey, 1987).

The potential inflation of correlations between measures assessed via the same method (e.g., self-report) is well known as the threat of Common Methods Bias or Common Methods Variance (Meade, Watson, & Kroustalis, 2007). Conway and Lance (2010, p. 329) state that “self-reports are clearly appropriate for job satisfaction and many other private events, but for other constructs such as job characteristics or job performance, other types of measures might be appropriate or even superior” (Conway and Lance 2010, p.329). As such, the self-completed survey method of assessing job satisfaction, job commitment, affective job engagement, and locus of control are supported by this notion. The assessment of position of the department in the organization lifecycle is not included in the same survey to avoid Common Methods Bias, and instead the partners or directors controlling the department were requested to complete a survey to assess this variable, effectively avoiding Common Methods Bias.

Furthermore, Conway and Lance (2010, p. 325) believe it is reasonable to expect: “(a) an argument for why self-reports are appropriate, (b) construct validity evidence, (c) lack of overlap in items for different constructs, and (d) evidence that authors took proactive design steps to mitigate threats of method effects” when the researcher is faced with the possibility of bias. The study focuses on self-reported constructs with sufficient validity and reliability, which are designed to use of negatively worded items, randomized item order, and multiple methods and ratters whenever possible, as advised by Meade et al. (2007). The existence of overlap items due to the investigation of concept of happiness at work consisting of constructs of job satisfaction, job commitment and job engagement as recommended by Fisher (2010) are inherent to investigate the concept.

Since the preconceived notions of internality as optimal are challenged by the hypothesis is the research, as such, Common Methods Bias is unlikely to further validate the correlation due to the bias in the same direction for all correlations being tested. Additionally, triangulation using the open-ended question focused on assessment of any bias of self-assessment of happiness at work and locus of control. It is therefore argued by the researcher that, as stated by Meade et al (2007, p. 4), “Common Methods Bias may be trivially small and certainly does not necessarily jeopardize the validity of study conclusions in every case”, applies to this research conducted.

“The influence of the researcher’s values is not minor” (Miles and Huberman 1994, p.10). It is hoped that the extent of open-endedness of the survey question would have avoided influencing the response by the participant. Also, the researcher did not meet, call, nor have identification information, or any knowledge of the respondent, in order to limit such potential influence. The risk of bias does lie in interpretation of the comments by the respondents. It is hoped that caution, care and self-awareness of the researcher would assist to mitigate influence to interpretations coloured through the researcher’s values. Presenting comments as quotations and not amending the responses would hopefully spot any bias in interpretations by the reviewers. For example, while the researcher is accustomed to working days which are longer than suggested by one respondent, personal judgement was set aside and the comment is noted as a work-life

balance concern: *“Working hours must be from 8am till 3pm, which will allow one to have enough time for other responsibilities outside work and to live a balanced life”* (?, Stage 1, 18, 21, 17).

7 Research Findings

Usually quantitative studies are generalizable, because the data used has a large sample size. The larger the sample size, the more the researcher is able to generalise, since the statistical power increases (Etikan, 2016; Saunders et al., 2009). As a guide to the matter, Leedy and Ormrod (2005) provide number of units in the sample size based on population (response rate): 100/100, 250/500, 300/1500 and 400/>5000 that is recommended for statistical analysis. As such, a large organization was sought to allow for sufficient sample size for this research to avoid a scenario where full population response is required for sufficient robustness.

M&Ms is an organization of around 591 employees sample size, thus a 50% response rate was targeted for the data analysis to accurately reflect the findings and conclusions (Leedy and Ormrod 2005). The total response rate for the employee's locus of control and happiness at work survey stood at 62% (369/591), and stage of the department in the organizational lifecycle response rate stood at 91% (32/35) by the partners in-charge of the departments. These response rates are calculated after three employee responses were deleted on the basis of duplication of the on-line survey by the employees, and four from the partners' survey. Data from employees in three departments where partners did not reply to the surveys could not be used for correlation analysis with the stage of development of the department leading to the lowest response rate for any analysis in this research to be: 57% (334/591). The response rate was considered satisfactory for reliable data analysis.

Additionally, each departmental response rates are noted in Table 8. Some departments have a greater than 100% response rate which indicates either incorrect department chosen by the employee while completing the survey, completion of the survey by employees in the department multiple times, or incorrect count of employees reported to the researcher. Where identified, such responses were deleted. The reliability of the data analysis per department decreases for department where response rates are further from 100%.

Since level of happiness at work for groups of people is measured through averages of happiness of individuals in the team (Totterdell et al., 1998), the reliability of conclusions from data analysis depends greatly on the standard deviation from the average for the group. Standard deviation is a measure that is used to quantify the amount of variation or dispersion of the average level of happiness at work being reported (Neeman, 2005). A low standard deviation indicates that the employees' level of happiness is close to the average reported, while a high standard deviation indicates that the data points are spread out over a wider range of values, making the average less reliable. This meant that the data for level of engagement being reported is most reliable for Durban Tax, and least reliable for MSSA, and was carefully monitored to avoid skewing of the data analysis.

TABLE 8: RESPONSE RATE BY DEPARTMENT

No.	Department	% response rate
1	Benoni, Accounting/BEE/Company Secretarial/Tax	78%
2	Benoni, Admin	67%
3	Benoni, Audit	44%
4	Cape Town, Accounting/Company Secretarial/Payroll/ Management Services	71%
5	Cape Town, Admin/Finance/HR/PA/IT	54%
6	Cape Town, Advisory	120%
7	Cape Town, Audit	59%
8	Cape Town, Tax	77%
9	Durban, Accounting/HR/Support	33%
10	Durban, Admin/Company Secretarial	83%
11	Durban, Audit	79%
12	Durban, Tax	71%
13	East London, Audit	57%
14	East London, Non-Audit	71%
15	George, Accounting/Entrepreneurial Advisory Services	65%
16	George, External Audit	88%
17	George, Internal Audit	111%
18	George, Support	100%
19	Humansdorp, Accounting	47%
20	Humansdorp, Admin/Support/Tax	68%
21	Humansdorp, Audit	78%
22	Johannesburg, Audit	44%
23	Johannesburg, Non-Audit	60%
24	Lichtenburg, All	109%
25	MSSA	40%
26	Pietermaritzburg, Audit	75%
27	Pietermaritzburg, Non-Audit	100%
28	Port Elizabeth, Accounting/Tax	94%
29	Port Elizabeth, Admin/BEE/Company Secretarial/IT	33%
30	Port Elizabeth, Audit	47%
31	Pretoria, Audit/SAICA	61%
32	Pretoria, Non-Audit	92%
33	Stellenbosch, Better Admin Trust	50%
34	Stellenbosch, Management Services	47%
35	Stellenbosch, VDA Inc.	25%
TOTAL		62%

7.1 Business Lifecycle and Happiness at Work

The null Hypothesis: There is no relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work constructs.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work constructs.

Spearman Rank Order Correlations for stage of development of the department in the organization lifecycle of department and happiness at work constructs are shown in Table 9. It is noted that there is a statistically significant relationship at 1% level for engagement, and at 5% for job satisfaction affective job commitment, but with weak strengths of relationship (β between 0.00 and ± 0.20).

TABLE 9: BUSINESS LIFECYCLE AND HAPPINESS AT WORK CORRELATIONS

Stage of Development	COMMITMENT	ENGAGEMENT	SATISFACTION
Correlation Coefficient	-.125 [*]	-.167 ^{**}	-.122 [*]
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.023	0.002	0.026
N	334	334	334
Stage of development of the department and affective commitment of employee correlation is significant at 0.05 level (significantly correlated) of weak strength (β between 0.00 and ± 0.20).			
Stage of Development of the department and job satisfaction of employee correlation is significant at 0.05 level (significantly correlated) and of weak strength (β between 0.00 and ± 0.20).			

The relationships are illustrated by the graph for comprehension purposes Figure 9, which shows a downward sloping best fit line (negative correlations), illustrating that happiness at work decreases as a department moves along the development stages of an organization's lifecycle; however, the gentle slope of the lines is indicative that the difference between happiness at work in a department in existence stage are not much different than those of an average department in decline.

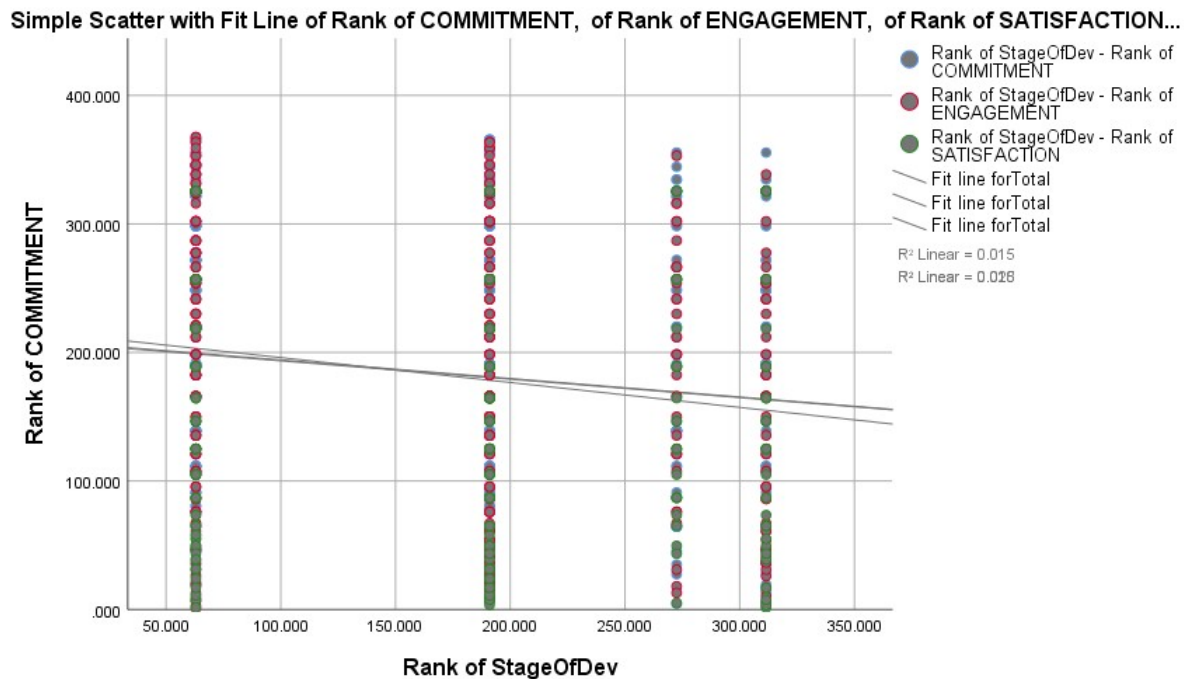


FIGURE 9: BUSINESS LIFECYCLE AND HAPPINESS AT WORK CONSTRUCTS GRAPH

Investigating the same relationship with components of engagement reveals a statistically significant relationship at 1% level for all constructs of engagement, but with weak strengths of relationship (β between 0.00 and ± 0.20) (Table 10).

TABLE 10: BUSINESS LIFECYCLE AND COMPONENTS OF ENGAGEMENT CORRELATIONS

Stage of Development	VIGOR	DEDICATION	ABSORPTION
Correlation Coefficient	-.162**	-.144**	-.146**
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.003	0.009	0.008
N	334	334	334
Stage of development of the department and affective commitment of employee correlation is significant at 0.05 level (significantly correlated) of weak strength (β between 0.00 and ± 0.20).			
Stage of Development of the department and job satisfaction of employee correlation is significant at 0.05 level (significantly correlated) and of weak strength (β between 0.00 and ± 0.20).			

Conclusion: The null hypothesis is rejected. There is a statistically significant relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work constructs. However, due to the weak strength of the relationships, the relationship needs further investigation for enhanced usefulness. As such, this research followed and investigated the relationship using locus of control expectancies of the respondents.

7.2 Locus of Control and Happiness at Work Constructs

The Null Hypothesis: There is no relationship between employees' locus of control expectancy and happiness at work constructs.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a relationship between employees' locus of control expectancy and happiness at work constructs.

Spearman Rank Order Correlations for locus of control and happiness at work constructs are shown in Table 11. There is a statistically significant relationship at 1% level for engagement, and at 5% for job satisfaction affective job commitment, but with weak strengths of relationship (β between 0.00 and ± 0.20).

TABLE 11: LOCUS OF CONTROL AND HAPPINESS AT WORK CONSTRUCTS CORRELATIONS

Locus of Control 0-11	COMMITMENT	ENGAGEMENT	SATISFACTION
Correlation Coefficient	-0.083	-.180**	-.128
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.123	0.001	0.017
N	349	349	349
Locus of control and affective commitment correlation is insignificant.			
Locus of control and affective engagement correlation is significant at 0.01 level (highly significantly correlated) of weak strength (β between 0.00 and ± 0.20).			
Locus of Control and Satisfaction Correlation is significant at 0.05 level (highly significant correlated) and of weak strength (β between 0.00 and ± 0.20).			

The test shows that internals are statistically more likely to be more engaged at work and exhibit greater job satisfaction than externals; however, the difference in the levels of engagement or job satisfaction between internals and externals are not large enough.

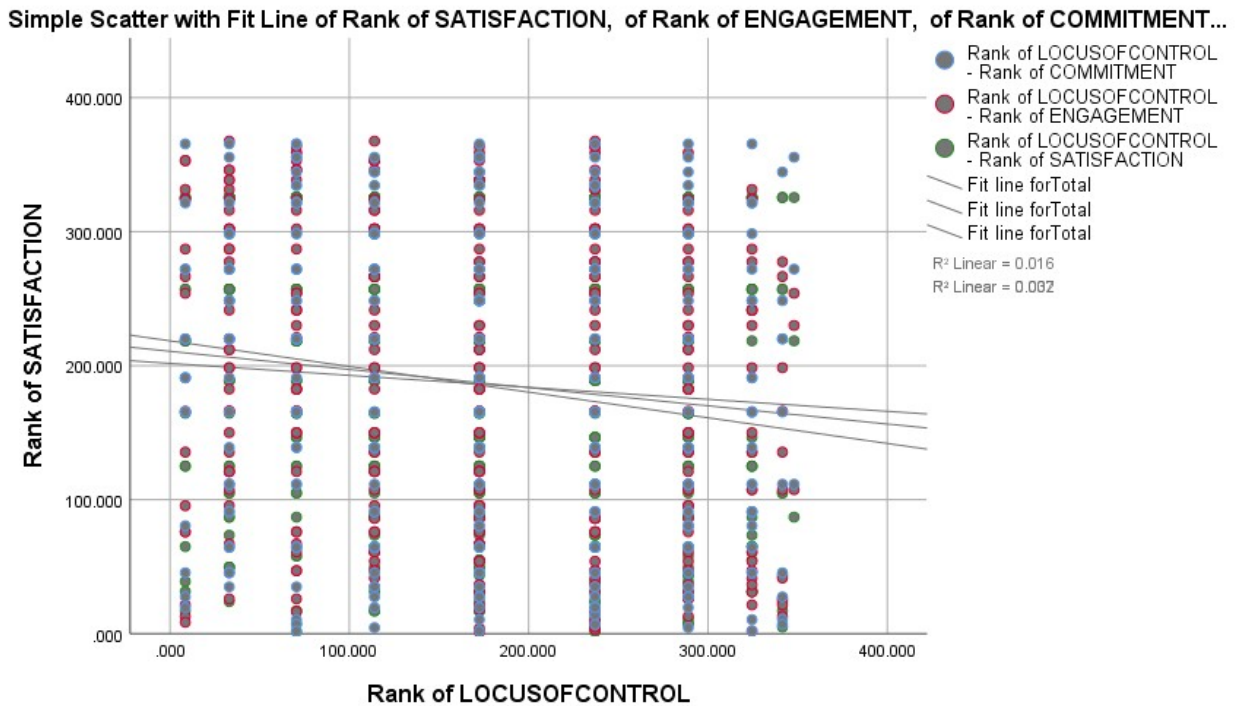


FIGURE 10: LOCUS OF CONTROL AND HAPPINESS AT WORK CONSTRUCTS GRAPH

This is illustrated by Figure 10, which shows a downward sloping best fit line, illustrating that engagement levels and job satisfaction falls as the locus of control rises; however, the gentle slope of the lines is indicative that the difference between engagement level or job satisfaction levels of an internal are not much different than those of an average external.

Similarly, investigating the relationship for the components of engagement (which is concluded that internals are statistically more likely to be more engaged at work) does not reveal any stronger relationship, but retains the 1% statistical significance.

TABLE 12: LOCUS OF CONTROL AND COMPONENTS OF ENGAGEMENT CORRELATIONS

Locus of Control 0-11	VIGOR	DEDICATION	ABSORPTION	ENGAGEMENT
Correlation Coefficient	-.180**	-.176**	-.148**	-.180**
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001	0.001	0.006	0.001
N	349	349	349	349
Locus of control and engagement correlation, and all components of engagement, are significant at 0.01 level (highly significantly correlated) of weak strength (β between 0.00 and ± 0.20).				

Conclusion: The null hypothesis is accepted for affective job commitment. There is no relationship between employees' locus of control expectancy and the construct of affective job commitment contributing to the concept of happiness at work.

The null hypothesis is rejected for job engagement and all its constructs (vigor, dedication and absorption) at 1% significance level. The null hypothesis is also rejected for job satisfaction at 5% significance level. However, due to the weak strength of the relationships, the relationship needs further investigation for enhanced usefulness. As such, this research followed and investigated the relationship by dividing the participants based on their locus of control expectancies.

7.3 Business Lifecycle and Happiness at Work: Testing Locus of Control as a Moderator

The null Hypothesis: Locus of control does not improve the strength of the relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work constructs.

Alternative Hypothesis: Locus of control does improve the strength of the relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work constructs.

TABLE 13: BUSINESS LIFECYCLE AND HAPPINESS AT WORK CONSTRUCTS (MODEL), TESTING FOR LOCUS OF CONTROL (LOC) AS A MODERATOR

Hierarchical Regression Analysis				
		Model	Model + LOC	Change (Sig. F Change)
COMMITMENT	R Squared	0.014	0.019	0.034
	R Squared Adjusted	0.011	0.013	0.046
	Significance	0.034	0.046	0.194
VIGOR	R Squared	0.039	0.062	0.023
	R Squared Adjusted	0.036	0.056	0.020
	Significance	0.000	0.000	0.006
DEDICATION	R Squared	0.026	0.052	0.026
	R Squared Adjusted	0.023	0.046	0.023
	Significance	0.004	0.000	0.004
ABSORPTION	R Squared	0.030	0.047	0.017
	R Squared Adjusted	0.027	0.041	0.014
	Significance	0.002	0.001	0.018
ENGAGEMENT	R Squared	0.039	0.065	0.026
	R Squared Adjusted	0.036	0.059	0.023
	Significance	0.000	0.000	0.004
SATISFACTION	R Squared	0.030	0.045	0.015
	R Squared Adjusted	0.027	0.038	0.011
	Significance	0.002	0.001	0.029

To conduct the analysis which investigates whether the locus of control construct of employees influences the strength of the relationship between the independent variable, the position of the department on the organizational lifecycle, and the dependent variables, the constructs of happiness at work – job satisfaction, affective job commitment and job engagement, a hierarchical regression analysis is conducted (Dr. K. Ramaboa, 5 February 2019, Personal Interview). The results of these are summarized in Table 13 .

Change in R square values are reviewed to check whether the introduction of the variable, locus of control, adds predictability value to the model or decreases the predictability value of the relationship. The R square values are increased in all dependent variables, and the significance levels are retained.

Conclusion: The null hypothesis is rejected. The relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle, and all constructs operating within the umbrella concept of happiness at work and components of job engagement (vigor, dedication and absorption) is improved with the introduction of locus of control of the employee as a moderator variable. As such, locus of control is concluded as a moderator to the relationship.

However, since the predictive value of the model and amended model when locus of control is introduced is fairly low (highest recorded on the table for engagement which is 4% explained by the model, and 7% by the model and locus of control), further analysis is deemed necessary.

7.4 Business Lifecycle and Happiness at Work for Internals and Externals

The Null Hypothesis: There is no relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work constructs for internals/externals.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work constructs for internals/externals.

In investigating the relationship further, this research's participants were split into internals and externals, similar to April et al. (2012). While April et al. (2012) had no responses with a locus of control score of 11, the scholars categorized participants into 0 to 5 as internals, and 5 to 10 as externals. The data for this research showed no respondents with 0 locus of control expectancy, or 11; as such, the data is segregated into 0-5 and 6 to 11 scores as representing internals and externals respectively.

TABLE 14: BUSINESS LIFECYCLE AND HAPPINESS AT WORK CONSTRUCTS FOR INTERNALS AND EXTERNALS CORRELATIONS

Spearman Rank Order Correlation	Locus of Control 0-5	COMMITMENT	ENGAGEMENT	SATISFACTION
Stage of Development	Correlation Coefficient	-0.056	-.142 [*]	-0.132
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.439	0.049	0.069
	N	192	192	192
Stage of development of the department and affective commitment or job satisfaction of employee correlation is insignificant for internals				
Stage of development of the department and engagement of employee correlation is significant at 0.05 level (significantly correlated) of weak strength (β between 0.00 and ± 0.20) for internals.				
Spearman Rank Order Correlation	Locus of Control 6-11	COMMITMENT	ENGAGEMENT	SATISFACTION
Stage of Development	Correlation Coefficient	-.217 [*]	-.218 [*]	-.184 [*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.016	0.015	0.040
	N	124	124	124
Stage of development of the department and affective commitment and engagement of employee correlation is significant at 0.05 level (significantly correlated) of medium strength (β between 0.20 and ± 0.35) for externals.				
Stage of development of the department and job satisfaction of employee correlation is significant at 0.05 level (significantly correlated) of weak strength (β between 0.00 and ± 0.20) for externals.				

Spearman Rank Order Correlations for stage of development in the organization lifecycle of department and happiness at work constructs are shown in Table 14. It is noted that there are statistically significant correlations between the constructs at 5% level for engagement and affective job commitment, with medium strengths of relationship for externals (β between 0.20 and ± 0.35).

The above analysis is conclusive of the presence of statistical significance at 5% level for externals that the further down the developmental stage of the organization leads to a decreased level of commitment and engagement levels. However, it is inconclusive for internals encourages further analysis of the data to enhance the understanding of the relationship.

Conclusion: The null hypothesis is accepted for internals for affective job commitment and job satisfaction. There is no relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and job commitment and job satisfaction for internals.

The null hypothesis is rejected for job engagement and all its constructs (vigor, dedication and absorption) at 5% significance level. There is a relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and engagement for internals.

The null hypothesis is rejected for externals. There is a relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and all happiness at work constructs for externals at 5% significance level. However, the strengthening of the relationships (7.2 to 7.4) encourages further investigation for enhanced usefulness. As such, this research followed and investigated the relationship by dividing the participants based on their locus of control expectancies into internal, balanced, and external locus of control expectancies.

7.5 Business Lifecycle and Happiness at Work for Internals, Balanced and External Locus of Control Expectancies

The Null Hypothesis: There is no relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work constructs for internals/balanced/external locus of control expectancy.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work constructs for internal/balanced/external locus of control expectancy.

In investigating the relationship further, the technique to split participants into internals and externals, as by April et al. (2012) was extended further to include a balanced locus of control category. The locus of control scale data (Valecha and Ostrom 1974) was segregated into 0-4 for internals, and 4 to 6 for a balanced locus of control or bi-locals (Torun and April 2006), and 6 to 11 for externals.

The test is conclusive of the presence of statistical significance at 1% level for externals that the further down the developmental stage of the department leads to a decreased level of all constructs contributing to happiness at work. It is conclusive for internals at 5% statistical significance that the further down the developmental stage of the department leads to a decreased level of engagement and job satisfaction. However, there is no relationship between the variables for a balanced locus of control, evidence of the fact that the level of happiness at work is not related to the stage of development of the department along the organizational lifecycle (

Table 15).

TABLE 15: BUSINESS LIFECYCLE AND HAPPINESS AT WORK CONSTRUCTS CORRELATIONS FOR INTERNALS, BALANCED AND EXTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL EXPECTANCIES

Spearman Rank Order Correlation	Locus of Control 0-4	COMMITMENT	ENGAGEMENT	SATISFACTION
Stage of Development	Correlation Coefficient	-0.103	-.206 [*]	-.212 [*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.258	0.022	0.019
	N	123	123	123
Stage of development of the department and affective commitment of employee correlation is insignificant for internals.				
Stage of development of the department and engagement or job satisfaction of employee correlation is significant at 0.05 level (significantly correlated) of medium strength (β between 0.20 and ± 0.35) for internals.				
Spearman Rank Order Correlation	Locus of Control 4-7	COMMITMENT	ENGAGEMENT	SATISFACTION
Stage of Development	Correlation Coefficient	-0.044	-0.119	-0.085
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.542	0.097	0.237
	N	196	196	196
Stage of development of the department and happiness at work of employee correlation is insignificant for employees with a balanced locus of control.				
Spearman Rank Order Correlation	Locus of Control 7-11	COMMITMENT	ENGAGEMENT	SATISFACTION
Stage of Development	Correlation Coefficient	-.374 ^{***}	-.352 ^{***}	-.355 ^{***}
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001	0.002	0.002
	N	75	75	75
Stage of development of the department and happiness at work of employee correlation is significant at 0.01 level (significantly correlated) of strong strength (β between 0.35 and ± 0.50) for externals.				

Spearman Rank Order Correlations for components of engagement are shown in Table 16:

TABLE 16: BUSINESS LIFECYCLE AND COMPONENTS OF ENGAGEMENT CORRELATIONS FOR INTERNALS, BALANCED AND EXTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL EXPECTANCIES

Spearman Rank Order Correlation	Locus of Control 0-4	VIGOR	DEDICATION	ABSORPTION	ENGAGEMENT
Stage of Development	Correlation Coefficient	-.226 [*]	-0.153	-0.163	-0.206[*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.012	0.092	0.071	0.022
	N	123	123	123	123
Stage of development of the department and dedication or absorption of employee correlation is insignificant for internals.					
Stage of development of the department and vigor of employee correlation is significant at 0.05 level (significantly correlated) of medium strength (β between ± 0.20 and ± 0.35 for internals).					
Spearman Rank Order Correlation	Locus of Control 4-7	VIGOR	DEDICATION	ABSORPTION	ENGAGEMENT
Stage of Development	Correlation Coefficient	-0.095	-0.122	-0.100	-0.119
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.187	0.088	0.163	0.097
	N	196	196	196	196
Stage of development of the department and engagement constructs of employee correlation is insignificant for employees with a balanced locus of control expectancy.					
Spearman Rank Order Correlation	Locus of Control 7-11	VIGOR	DEDICATION	ABSORPTION	ENGAGEMENT
Stage of Development	Correlation Coefficient	-.360 ^{**}	-.301 ^{**}	-.295 [*]	-.352^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.002	0.009	0.010	0.002
	N	75	75	75	75
Stage of development of the department and vigor of employee correlation is significant at 0.01 level (highly significantly correlated) of strong strength (β between ± 0.35 and ± 0.5) for externals.					
Stage of development of the department and dedication of employee correlation is significant at 0.01 level (highly significantly correlated) of medium strength (β between ± 0.2 and ± 0.35) for externals.					
Stage of development of the department and vigor of employee correlation is significant at 0.05 level (significantly correlated) of strong strength (β between ± 0.2 and ± 0.35) for externals.					

The analysis is conclusive of the presence of statistical significance at 1% level for externals that the further down the developmental stage of the department leads to a decreased level of all components of engagement. It is conclusive for internals at 5% statistical significance that the further down the developmental stage of the department leads to a decreased level of engagement for internals, driven through lower levels of vigor. However, the null hypothesis is rejected for balanced locus of control. The level of engagement, or any of its components, is not related to the stage of development of the department along the organizational lifecycle.

Conclusion: The null hypothesis is accepted for internals for affective job commitment. There is no relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and affective job commitment for internals.

The null hypothesis is rejected for job engagement and job satisfaction for internals at 5% significance level. There is a relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and job engagement (driven through vigor) and job satisfaction for internals.

The null hypothesis is accepted for those with a balanced locus of control expectancy. There is no relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work (any of its constructs or components) for those with a balanced locus of control expectancy.

The null hypothesis is rejected for externals. There is a relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and all happiness at work constructs for externals at 1% significance level.

The strengthening of the relationships (7.2 to 7.4 to 7.5) encourages further investigation for validating the finding for externals. As such, this research followed and investigated the relationship by changing the scores on the locus of control scale to further validate the findings.

7.6 Business Lifecycle and Happiness at Work for Externals

The Null Hypothesis: There is no relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work constructs for externals (I-E scores 6-11/7-11/8-11).

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work constructs for externals (I-E scores 6-11/7-11/8-11).

In light of the strong relationship at 1% significance level for externals between the stage of development and the level of happiness at work, further analysis is conducted to ensure the findings are valid, and confirm the conclusion by conducting the analysis at different score levels for externals on the abbreviated locus of control I-E scale (Valecha and Ostrom 1974).

TABLE 17: BUSINESS LIFECYCLE AND HAPPINESS AT WORK CONSTRUCTS CORRELATIONS FOR VARIED SCORES OF EXTERNALS

Spearman Rank Order Correlation	Locus of Control 6-11	COMMITMENT	ENGAGEMENT	SATISFACTION
Stage of Development	Correlation Coefficient	-.217 [*]	-.218 [*]	-.184 [*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.016	0.015	0.040
	N	124	124	124
Stage of development of the department and happiness at work of employee correlation is significant at 0.05 level (significantly correlated) of weak (β between 0 and ± 0.20) or medium strength (β between 0.2 and ± 0.35) for externals defined through 7-11 or 8-11 locus of control scale score.				
Spearman Rank Order Correlation	Locus of Control 7-11	COMMITMENT	ENGAGEMENT	SATISFACTION
Stage of Development	Correlation Coefficient	-.374 ^{**}	-.352 ^{**}	-.355 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001	0.002	0.002
	N	75	75	75
Spearman Rank Order Correlation	Locus of Control 8-11	COMMITMENT	ENGAGEMENT	SATISFACTION
Stage of Development	Correlation Coefficient	-.469 ^{**}	-.336 [*]	-.372 [*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.004	0.049	0.028
	N	35	35	35
Stage of development of the department and happiness at work of employee correlation is significant at 0.01 level (highly significantly correlated) of strong strength (β between 0.35 and ± 0.50) for externals defined through 7-11 or 8-11 locus of control scale score.				

Presence of statistical significance at 1% level for externals illustrates that the further down the developed stages of the department on the organizational lifecycle, the decreased is the level of all constructs contributing to happiness at work. This relationship is strengthened with higher the levels of externality.

Conclusion: The null hypothesis is rejected for externals. There is a relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and all happiness at work constructs for externals at 1% significance level, that strengthens with increasing externality (

Table 17).

7.7 Summary of Quantitative Analysis

Spearman Rank Order Correlations reveal that there is a statistically significant relationship between stage of development in the organizational lifecycle and work engagement at 1% significance, and at 5% significance for job satisfaction, with no relationship for job commitment (for all expectancies). Similarly, the findings are summarized for internal, balanced and external locus of control expectancies (Table 18).

TABLE 18: SUMMARY OF QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

Locus of Control		COMMITMENT	ENGAGEMENT (Vigor, Dedication, Absorption)	SATISFACTION	OLC v HAW Relationship
Internals (0-4 score)	β	-0.103✖	-.206* ✓ (-0.226* ✓, -0.153✖, -0.163✖)	-.212* ✓	?
	p	0.258	0.022 (0.012, 0.092, 0.071)	0.019	
	N	123	123	123	
Balanced (4 to 7 score)	β	-0.044	-0.119 (-0.095, -0.122, -0.100)	-0.085	✖
	p	0.542	0.097 (-0.187, -0.088, -0.163)	0.237	
	N	196	196	196	
Externals (7 to 11 score)	β	-.374**	-.352** (-0.360** -0.301** -0.295**)	-.355**	✓ Strong
	p	0.001	0.002 (-0.002, -0.009, -0.010)	0.002	
	N	75	75	75	
All (0 to 11)	β	-0.125* ✓	-.167** ✓ (-0.162** ✓ -0.144** ✓ -0.146** ✓)	-.146* ✓	✓ weak
	p	0.023	0.002 (-0.003, -0.009, -0.008)	0.017	
	N	334	334	334	

Key for Table 18	
Null hypothesis accepted – no relationship	✖
Null hypothesis rejected – there is a relationship	✓
Inconclusive relationship	?
5% significance level	*

1% significance level	**
β (strength of the relationship)	#
Organizational lifecycle	OLC
Happiness at work	HAW

7.8 Qualitative Analysis

As a part of the survey of the employees that required completion of academically-validated constructs under the concept of happiness at work, the employees were also provided the opportunity to comment on any aspect of the survey regarding their level of happiness at work. This open-ended question allowed free scope for comments, for which 54 responses were received. In analysing the comments, few themes emerge of the reasons for, or for a lack of happiness at work. These are discussed below:

7.8.1 Workload

An employee subtly highlights the stress associated with workload using euphemism, by stating: *“Sometimes can be stressful”* (balanced, stage 1, 27, 45, 23). Work stressors, which refer to taxing aspects of a job, include: employee workload, interpersonal conflict, and organizational constraints (Gray-Stanley et al., 2010). Researchers have also investigated the relationship between job characteristics and perceived job stress. Workload, fluctuations in the amount of work demanded at different times, and the amount of control or discretion an individual has over the work process have all been linked to perceived job stress (Lucas and Diener 2003). Experienced workload and time pressure are strongly and consistently related to burnout (Demerouti et al., 2010), particularly the exhaustion dimension. This pattern is found with both self-reports of experienced strain and more objective measures of demands (such as number of hours worked and number of clients) (Maslach et al., 2001).

The most frequent comment involved workload experienced by the employees. A total of 18 respondents (33%) highlighted concerns regarding the matter. One respondent with an unknown locus of control expectancy expresses the lack of work-life balance by demanding: *“Working hours must be from 8am till 3pm, which will allow one to have enough time for other responsibilities outside work and to live a balanced life”* (? , Stage 1, 18, 21, 17). Locus of control is known to be a moderator for between stress and workload (Gray-Stanley et al., 2010), the comments below follow an analysis of the theme based on the respondent’s locus of control expectancy:

A respondent with an external locus of control expectancy clearly linked the issue of overwork with mental health (Gray-Stanley et al., 2010) by stating: *“Just in a bad place mentally from being overworked”* (7, stage 1, 16, 30, 13). Another external demanded to: *“Have more time to complete work on audits”* (external, stage 1, 20, 24, 8). Similarly, another respondent with an external locus of control expectancy states: *“More time on audits, more staff, better management of audits”* (7, stage 2, 28, 35, 5), linking

workload to resource constraints (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), planning, and management issues (Hashim, 2010).

Similar comments were noted from employees with a balanced locus of control. *"I enjoy my job thoroughly. The only problem I have is other people not keeping to deadlines and not taking my time into consideration"* (balanced, stage 3, 25, 45, 23), highlighting management of personal time to be a concern during high workload periods. Similar to the respondent, another two respondent with a balanced locus of control highlights the lack of concern for the employees which allows the department to be: *"completely deadline driven, with little consideration from clients with submission of work to me and expect it to be completed no matter what"* (balanced, stage 1, 16, 28, 18), *"entirely deadline driven and dependant on information submitted by clients therefore often placed under intense time constraints"* (balanced, stage 1, 20, 30, 20).

Identically for internals, one respondent states: *"Enjoy the job, but workload to[o] much"* (internal, stage 2, 25, 33, 20). Mentioning the enjoyment in the job, but the stressor of workload, another employee with an internal locus of control mentions: *"I am content in my working environment. As much as there are days that can be hectic with deadlines, overall it is an enjoyable environment in which I am able to learn and grow on a daily basis. It feels good to be a [] part of a great team"* (internal, stage 1, 25, 45, 24). Similarly, yet another internal mentions the concern in same pattern of firstly recognizing enjoyment of the job, and then sharing the concern about work-load: *"I love my job but sometimes the workload is just to[o] much and the cold aircons [are] not nice"* (internal, stage 2, 29, 45, 24). The mention of positivity towards the job with the complaint of workload by internals continues, with another internal respondent mentioning that he/she loves the job post the concern raised about work-load: *"A lot of overtime sometimes gets overwhelming and that it is sometimes expected that we work in our own time without consulting with us first. Overall[,] I love the job and everything that comes with it. We have really caring management who are always understanding and supportive. I learn a lot on a daily basis and am constantly inspired to think outside of the box"* (internal, stage 1, 28, 50, 24). Another employee with an internal locus of control expectancy mentions: *"I love my job[;] however I do feel that some change is needed with regards to job allocation and budgets"*. Though not clearly stating a love for the job as many others, yet one internal respondent recognizes that the workload has a silver lining to professional development: *"The audit environment is a stressful one with deadlines and managing trainees[;] however[,] it teaches you to learn and develop daily"* (4, stage 1, 26, 45, 23).

It is found that all internals mention the positivity of the job along with the workload issue: *"The environment is great, although the pressure of working overtime all the time makes it unbearable and straining on a personal level"* (internal, stage 2, 15, 33, 13). While this respondent gives credit to the work environment, there are some that are very negative in respect of the workload in their comments, yet still recognize positivity in their comment such as: *"In the current department and the current location there is a lack of human resources and an excess of work which forces audit work to be done in shorter*

periods of time with less resources. I dislike the current office to such an extent that I would like to leave. I love auditing and all that it entails. Dissatisfaction comes from being expected to perform the work of 2-3 people within a 40-hour week“ (internal, stage 1, 15, 26, 4). Despite a clear indication that the respondent wants to exit the firm, the love of the profession is mentioned in the comments.

While the concern of workload and its negative impact on happiness at work is shared by employee of all expectancies, the nature of the comments reveals that internals recognize other matters that may be positive while raising the concern regarding workload. Externals flatly demand a decrease in workload (Gray-Stanley et al., 2010). Additionally, those with a balanced locus of control seem to regard the workload concern as a lack of care by the leadership. While qualitative research, unlike the quantitative research discussed before, is not deductive, the trend found is illustrative of the fact that locus of control expectancy can lead to differences in perception of the problem a shared problem across the firm that effects levels of happiness at work for the employees. Due to their energizing potential, challenge stressors such as workload and time pressure have the ability to boost work engagement and attentiveness (Sonnetag, 2015). There may be an indication in the comments that internals embrace workload as an enabler for engagement at work, while other expectancies do not show a tendency to do so.

A possible solution to the workload concern was presented by one employee with an unknown expectancy who stated: *“I’d like better communication from the top to people on the ground, which will help with better planning”* (? , Stage 3, 19, 37, 19) as previously mentioned by an external also. Unsurprisingly, workloads are predicted in resource capacity planning systems to select the best plans in organizations to mitigate such concerns from employees (Adkins, 2006).

7.8.1.1 Leadership

Leadership style is known to bear an impact on the levels of work engagement, better life satisfaction and lower levels of burnout (Harju, Schaufeli, & Hakanen, 2018). For example, servant leaders emphasise personal growth and development in their followers, and thereby empower them (Rodriguez, 2010); hence, encouraging positivity associated with the organization and work. Marques’ (2013) research exploring admirable leadership skills highlights its ability in creating a more stimulating and inspirational work environment, and encouraging job crafting in teams, and mitigate the level of job boredom (Emolument, 2017).

In respect of leadership in the departments in the firms, one internal respondent states: *“In an Audit firm[,] the department manager determines the mood”* (internal, stage 1, 24, 49, 24). Employees of all expectancies have regarded this as an important factor contributing to or hindering happiness at work. With 10 (19%) respondents referring to the matter, it is the second most prevalent factor mentioned as influencing happiness at work.

A respondent with an external locus of control expectancy appreciates the leadership and attributes it to lead to his/her happiness at work by stating: *“The partners and staff at my firm are amazing, they are supportive, understanding and believe in me. They actually care and look after me”* (external, stage 2, 30, 48, 24). Similarly, another respondent with external expectancy expresses his/her frustration due to leadership by stating: *“The inconsistency[ies] in the rules are very frustrating, e.g. some people disappear/arrive late and don't work in the time with no consequences”* (7, stage 5, 26, 45, 23)

Similar comments are noted from participants with a balanced locus of control expectancy: *“My department's work environment and leadership style is[are] great. I don't think you would get this anywhere else in the finance/corporate world”* (balanced, stage 1, 22, 29, 16). On the contrary, a complaint about a manager's leadership is seen to have a profound impact on the level of happiness at work, job satisfaction in particular, for one balanced locus of control respondent: *“My job in general is not bad, but my manager makes it unenjoyable. [I]t is hard to work with someone who is never constant. I don't feel motivated to work for someone who treats you bad and unprofessional[ly.] It has a direct effect on my work. I know I can ask to move to a[n]other team, but nothing stays confidential and if I'm not moved he will only treat me worse”* (4, stage?, 15, 33, 6).

Similar comments complementing the leadership and criticism thereof are noted from those with an internal expectancy. One respondent stated: *“Management need to make good on their promises. If questionnaires are taken, management need to do something about the feedback”* (internal, stage 2, 20, 34, 18) alluding towards leadership concerns, expressing higher demands of the leadership. On the contrary, another employee with an internal expectancy states: *“Having to answer only to the directors, makes my job enjoyable. Working alongside our receptionist makes it even better”* (internal, stage 1, 30, 48, 23).

The lowest score for the happiness at work constructs in the entire firm is noted from an employee with an internal locus of control expectancy who states: *“Our firm is racially discriminating. Management and Partners do not award equal opportunities, but base work allocation on who they like. Management and Partners have no empathy or understanding for our struggles, health or personal issues”* (internal, stage 5, 8, 23, 0) The personality trait of the said employee was tested against propensity to expect racial bias (Harell, Soroka, & Iyengar, 2017). It was concluded that the employee does not bear the locus of control trait associated with susceptibility to claims of racial bias (Valentine, Silver, & Twigg, 1999). However, it highlights that perception of unfair treatment can lead to a dramatic impact on the levels of happiness at work for employees.

Another employee with an unknown locus of control expectancy lists a host of concerns, among which is feeling not being cared for, which does not promote happiness at work: *“Love my job, but unhappy doing it because of stress factors like work overload, getting no help, no chance to grow, environment not nice to promote a feeling of well-being, cared for”* (?, Stage 1, 15, 39, 8).

It is noted that leadership concerns or appreciation is mentioned more frequently by internals and externals than by those with a balanced locus of control expectancy.

7.8.2 Training

The third most commented matter in the survey was regarding training, with nine comments (17%) alluding towards its importance in one way or another. While the aspect is recognized as universally important for job satisfaction (van Saane, 2003), it is more important in organizations that provide a learning and career platform, as it is an objective of the employees to embark on this growth and an expectation from the organization.

With a focus on this ambition in accounting firms that train employees to qualify for professional accountancy bodies, learning from the job, or training, appears to have the effect of increasing resilience, or tolerance, towards matters which influence the level of an employee's happiness at work negatively. As remarked by the employee with an external expectancy, there is a clear link in the mind of employees between learning and happiness at work: *"It['s] great when you learn new and exciting things in your industry in order to keep your job satisfaction at bay"* (7, stage 5, 21, 38, 18)

Employees with a balanced locus of control expectancy and with highest level of happiness at work at the firm states: *"I am so grateful for being given this opportunity to work for [M&Ms] Pdb EL. I am so passionate about my job and I have learned so much and still do. I have the best bosses and colleagues"* (balanced, stage?, 30, 54, 21). Similarly, is shared by others of a balanced expectancy: *"Regarding the field – auditing can be enjoyable as it is a field in which you challenge yourself as well as learn so much"* (balanced, stage 3, 15, 33, 10). Another employee with a balanced locus of control expectancy states: *"The audit environment is a stressful one with deadlines and managing trainees[;] however[,] it teaches you to learn and develop daily"* (4, stage 1, 26, 45, 23).

In contrast to the above, comments from internals on the matter reflect on a lack of training or competence of others. Similar is shared by an employee regarding the dealings with external parties: *"Coping with SARS [South African Revenue Service] is a nightmare. Dealing with incompetence is frustrating"* (?, Stage 1, 17, 9, 4). One employee with an internal locus of control demands: *"More training should be given to new trainees. I feel that for the first 6 months of articles the trainees need to be solely involved in accounting before they begin working on Caseware"* (4, stage 3, 25, 42, 18). One comment has also been noted regarding this from an employee with a balanced locus of control expectancy: *"It's really frustrating correcting work that comes from a senior manager most of the time"* (balanced, stage?, 12, 23, 15). Similarly, the competence concerns of working with the tax authorities is accompanied with a smile from the respondent with a balanced locus of control: *"Working with tax is always a challenge:)"* (balanced, stage 2, 24, 32, 18)

While the link between narcissism and internality is inductive in research (April et al., 2011), the relationship between locus of control and self-efficacy is long documented (Marks, 1998 citing Wong and Sproule 1984). The preference to highlight the need for other's training over enjoyment of one's own is clear from the comments from those with internal locus of control expectancy.

7.8.3 Team

Since workload is the most frequently mentioned concern from employees in respect of their happiness at work in the survey, it's interaction with other factors is important to note. For example, Hakanen et al. (2005) tested this interaction in a sample of Finnish dentists employed in the public sector. It was found that job resources (e.g. variability in the required professional skills and peer contacts) are most beneficial in maintaining work engagement under conditions of high job demands (e.g. workload, or unfavourable physical environment). (Bakker and Demerouti 2008). The importance of peer contacts or team in which the participants operate to their happiness at work is abundantly evident from the comments.

A respondent with an external expectancy states: *"Negative influence/atmosphere in office"* (7, stage 2, 18, 39, 20) as a reason for his/her low level of happiness at work. Another external regards this to be the reason behind him/her being happy at work: *"I love my clerk colleagues, they make it worthwhile"* (7, Stage 2, 18, 18, 14).

Similarly, is noted from those with a balanced expectancy. One participant states: *"I really enjoy my team and work..."* (balanced, stage 1, 19, 31, 24), another stating: *"I love the people in my department, they make the work worthwhile"* (balanced, stage 2, 20, 34, 14). One respondent with a balanced locus of control expectancy raves above the atmosphere in the office by claiming: *"I have never worked for a company with a pleasant atmosphere quite like this one"* (balanced, stage 2, 28, 52, 24). Internals have commented similarly to the matter, with one respondent stating: *"Need a bit more working as team, not individualism. Else, it is good and challenging"* (4, stage 3, 27, 36, 16), and another requesting: *"I would like everyone to work together as a team. To assist each other where possible as we are all here to achieve the same goal"* (internal, stage 1, 24, 51, 22).

Yet again, comments from internals have a different tone to the comments from other expectancies. Internals are noted to be more critical of the team, and along with the comments noted regarding demands from leadership, and competence and training of colleagues, appear more demanding than other expectancies in their tone of mentioning comments that bear the same or similar theme to those with an external or a balanced locus of control expectancy.

Lastly, an employee with an unknown expectancy states: *"I love the work itself, trying to concentrate to do the work is mostly a problem. I feel we cannot be productive because doing work that is wasting my time,*

no one to help, noise levels, etc" (?, Stage 2, 20, 36, 14), highlighting that a cohesive team assists to avoid scenarios where the employees feel that there is no one to help.

7.8.4 Career

In reference to person-organization fit, and person-job fit, while the earlier is known to have greater impact on happiness at work (Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001), a focus on the job is also clearly of importance to happiness at work for employees. An employee with an unknown locus of control expectancy states a host of matters influencing his/her happiness at work, including importance of career progression: *"Love my job, but unhappy doing it because of stress factors like work overload, getting no help, no chance to grow, environment not nice to promote a feeling of well-being, cared for"* (?, Stage 1, 15, 39, 8), highlighting the importance of career growth to the employee.

All the respondents that have raised a concern about career progression have a balanced or an internal locus of control expectancy, with one internal stating the purpose of the audit clerks as career progression by stating: *"For the majority of clerks[,] audit is a means to advance our careers"* (internal, stage 2, 16, 29, 20). Another employee with an internal locus of control states: *"I hate my job because I have to do audits 99% of the time when I am actually in the Accounting/tax department. If I wanted to do auditing[,] I would have been doing SAICA, but favouritism and nepotism [...]"* (internal, stage 1, 14, 17, 9). A respondent with a balanced locus of control expectancy states: *"[I] feel that my job lacks depth or meaning – it[']s very administrative I get that and I was warned about it[,] but I feel like I am not be[ing] stretched or used for my capabilities. I have much more to offer[,] I feel!"* (balanced, stage 1, 11, 23, 19); thus, highlighting the importance of a challenging job to the respondent's levels of happiness at work.

With the limited scope to respond to the open-ended enquiry, externals did not raise the concern of person-job fit, or a chosen career preference as their top concerns regarding happiness at work for them.

7.8.5 Recognition

Following on from leadership and the impact of perceived unfairness, the theme of recognition for effort and calibre was noted as important for happiness at work by several participants.

The depressive tone is evident in one respondent with an unknown locus of control expectancy who states: *"After 25 years it is difficult to get too excited any more, especially if you got nowhere with all the hard work spanning more than two decades and all you see for that is constant changes in directors, but getting nowhere myself"* (?, Stage 1, 22, 31, 5). Another participant with a balanced locus of control applauds the team, but highlights the need for recognition, which is again linked to the level of perceived care from leaders towards the employees as mentioned frequently in workload concerns raised in the earlier section: *"I really enjoy my team and work. I sometimes wish for greater recognition and more interest in people than the money"* (balanced, stage 1, 19, 31, 24). Similar is stated by another employee with balanced expectancy stating: *"Employees are the biggest asset. I feel the company doesn't listen to what its*

employees have to say” (balanced, stage 2, 18, 24, 6). Yet another employee with balanced expectancy states: “Appreciation for work done, communication between staff and levels of management[,] and appreciation for staff[,] and [emphasis on] staff satisfaction would go a long in improving the current vibe of the atmosphere of the company at current” (balanced, stage 1, 15, 45, 21).

The above, together with the section regarding workload, illustrates the need for recognition and care required for employees with balanced locus of control expectancy is higher than expressed by those with internal or external expectancies.

7.8.6 Pay

Forming the cognitive element of job satisfaction and contributing towards happiness at work, benefits and work remuneration have been the price concern for some respondents. One employee with an internal locus of control expectancy states: *“Please offer market related salaries and benefits” (internal, stage 1, 29, 41, 18)*, and another states: *We do not get a 13th cheque. Looking for jobs with 13th cheque” (internal, stage 2, 28, 31, 21)*. Similarly, those with external locus of control expectancy states his/her wish to: *“... Receive more benefits (Pension, medical, travel claim etc.)” (external, stage 1, 20, 24, 8).*

7.8.7 Personality

Some employees clearly link their happiness at work with their personality trait, or to their determination to make the most of it. One participant with an internal locus of control states: *“My job may not seem like much to most people[,] but I am the type of person that believes that anything I do must be done to the best of my abilities” (internal, stage 1, 25, 48, 24)*, and another internal states: *“My work is the best” (internal, stage 1, 30, 50, 24)*. Externals seem to state similar, but with reference to third party: *“Most times, how happy you are in your job depends on your happiness too and what you make of it” (7, stage 1, 29, 43, 24).*

7.9 Summary of Qualitative Data Analysis

“I enjoy my job at my outmost...Love it, no complains” (balanced, stage 2, 23, 50, 23).

It is expected that when limited to three points to contribute towards the study, the input from the participants who have completed the happiness at work survey would allow them some self-reflection into providing the most important antecedents to their level of happiness in the department due to this limit.

Few themes emerge from the comments which are consistent with the literature review (van Saane, 2003). The most common comment was regarding ‘workload’, followed by ‘leadership’ matters and ‘training’ or learning opportunities at work. Generally, workload is most directly related to the exhaustion aspect of burnout. The demand–control model claims that job control, or autonomy, may buffer the influence of workload on strain; whereas, the effort–reward imbalance model states that rewards (in terms of salary, esteem reward, and security/career opportunities, i.e., promotion prospects, job security, and status consistency) may buffer the influence of effort (extrinsic job demands and intrinsic motivation to meet

these demands) on strain (Bakker et al., 2007). People may be willing to tolerate a mismatch in workload if they receive praise and good pay, work well with their colleagues, or if they feel or are made to feel that their work is valuable and important. The factor noted to buffer the employees from work exhaustion is noted as training or learning. While more specific to organizations that allow for career progression or qualifications, the finding is relevant to the model, and closely linked to ‘promotion prospects’ noted in the research.



FIGURE 11: ANTECEDENTS OF HAPPINESS AT WORK IDENTIFIED FROM QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS (% OF EMPLOYEES/TOTAL NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES WHO COMMENTED)

Aspects of the team also contributed to the comments made. Other comments related to career progression, recognition or pay concerns, with also comments applauding the respondent’s own personality for the level of happiness at work. Figure 11 illustrates all the themes emerging in their respective order of frequency.

In reviewing the locus of control expectancy of the participants making the comments, differences are noted to arise based on differing expectancies of the employees. For example, it was noted that all comments regarding career growth as important aspect of happiness at work came from internals or from those with a balanced locus of control expectancy, with no comments on the matter from those with external expectancy. Higher comments regarding leadership arose from internals and externals, compared with employees with a balanced locus of control. These differences illustrate the importance of some antecedents to happiness at work for certain expectancies over others.

Not only in terms of frequency, but the nature of the comments from different expectancies varied. For example, comments regarding training, personal growth and learning was seen as important factors by external and those with balanced locus of control expectancy, but the comments regarding training by

internals seem to be focused of a lack of calibre of personnel which leads them to be frustrated. The tone of complaints towards others continues in the theme of 'leadership' and the 'team' from internals. However, in respect of 'workload', internals are noted to accompany the complaint of a high workload with a positive aspect of having high levels of workload (e.g. personal growth), or an unrelated aspect of work to workload; such as, the work environment, while externals clearly view it as a hindrance to their level of happiness at work. Similarly, none of the externals commented towards the theme of 'career', possibly indicating the lack of importance of the matter to them.

In a discussion about autonomy and union as two opposite drives for humans, an environment of interdependence (union) allows for externals to be happy while autonomy facilitated internals to be happier (Morling & Fiske, 1999). As such, in conclusion, the inductive study conducted alludes towards the fact that happiness at work for internals, externals, and those with a balanced locus of control expectancy seems to arise from some generalized factors. However, these are noted not to be evenly distributed amongst the expectancies. Some factors tend to contribute to happiness at work for internals while others assist externals to be happier at work.

8 Discussion

8.1 Happiness at Work along the Business Lifecycle - the role of Locus of Control

Locus of control (Rotter, 1966) has been academically discussed for half a century; as such, research on the topic has matured. Nonetheless, it is impressive that new correlations are found with this personality trait construct till date. For example, in respect of topics of relevance currently; such as, happiness (David and Singh 2016; Ramezani and Gholtash 2015; April et al. 2012), and attitude towards immigration (Harell et al., 2017), research conducted using this personality trait has revealed significant correlations. It is for this reason that Judge et al. (2008) regarded it as a core self-evaluation trait, highlighting it to be fundamental to human behaviour.

While initially the abundance of Western literature allocated best attributes of a personality to internality (Hiers and Heckel 1977; Anderson and Schneier 1978; Andrisani and Nestel 1976; Lee-Kelley 2006), the view has been challenged (April et al. 2011; Hyatt and Prawitt 2001; Littunen and Storhammar 2000), and the concept of best-fit based on the environment has been introduced to the personality trait (Wijbenga and Witteloostuijn 2007; Kroeck et al. 2010) particularly when investigated in respect of entrepreneurship (Kaufmann et al., 1995).

The research conducted has extended this enquiry to the entire business lifecycle (Quinn and Cameron 1983; Adizes 1979; Lester et al. 2003). While profits, performance and success may be the traditional bottom-line business and work objectives, the correlation between happiness and performance is well

established (Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, 2005; Oswald, Proto, & Sgroi, 2015; Walsh, Boehm, & Lyubomirsky, 2018; Zelenski et al., 2008), with confirmation that happiness as the independent variable and success and the dependent variable (Walsh et al., 2018), meaning that happiness at work precedes success in a job. As such, the relationship of happiness at work and stages of development along the organization was researched. This research is conducted in 35 departments within a national organization with different locations based on the concept that each department can be positioned at one out of five stages of the business lifecycle (Adizes and Naiman 1988; Lester et al. 2003). The researcher believes this is particularly true when each department acts as a business unit, as many departments in accounting firms do: corporate secretarial, tax and audit departments and even specialized consultancy.

It is concluded that a statistically significant, but weak, relationship between happiness at work and the department's stage of development on the business lifecycle exists, with a preference towards departments that are early in the stages of development: smaller in size, controlled by the founder or partner in-charge, with a simple structure and simple, and informal information processing. The negative correlations found indicate that such departments harbour higher levels of happiness at work (Fisher, 2010), based on constructs of job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, and engagement levels. Dividing the respondents into their respective locus of control expectancies reveals that externals are most sensitive to this preference, having their level of happiness at work strongly correlated to the stage at which their department is positioned on the business lifecycle. The correlation stands for all constructs of the concept of happiness at work (job satisfaction, affective job commitment, and all components of job engagement: vigor, dedication and absorption). Internals show similar relationship, of a moderate strength, but for the level of vigor component of engagement, engagement as a whole, and job satisfaction only. Those with a balanced locus of control expectancy show no correlation with the stage of development of the department for any construct under happiness at work examined, or any component of engagement.

Externals with their belief that their happiness is dependent on factors outside their personal control (Carrim, 2006), either with powerful others, on chance, luck, or fate, or attributed to complexity of the world (Lefcourt, 1976a) are inclined to be sensitive to external forces and the environment for personal level of happiness in the work environment. Belief in control by powerful others can be due to the individual's belief of being physically or intellectually weaker than others around them. Therefore, for these individuals, externality is defined through the competitive environment, or differential perceived power in a social milieu. It is therefore explanatory of their sensitivity to the departmental characteristics. Work-related sources of social support, more associated with smaller departments, and proximity to leaders which are seen as powerful dictators of their fate and the environment by externals, have been found to be closely associated with exhaustion (Halbesleben, 2006). It is expected that externals are more inclined to respond to this as a stimulus to their level of happiness at work.

Though to a less extent than externals, the preference towards earlier stages in the organizational lifecycle persists in internals. The construct contributing to this is engagement, by the component of vigor. As

such, on average, internals are likely to feel the difference in their energy level when placed departments with differing positions on the organizational lifecycle. On the contrary, internals with their belief of strong association between their actions and consequences interpret reinforcements they receive at work as contingent upon their own actions (Lee-Kelley, 2006). It can be expected that attribution of consequences to their actions are increasingly subdued in larger departments, or more structured environments, that fail to provide them with the reinforcement of their actions that they anticipate due to their expectancy. Additionally, a desire to control inherent in internals may not be feasible, possible or even permitted as the organization or department progresses towards more developed stages of the organizational lifecycle due to more structured work environment. Hyatt's (2001) research indicates that supervisor-assessed job performance is positively associated with the "fit" between individual auditors' locus of control and the employing firm's audit structure, with internals preferring less structured audit environment than externals. It can be expected that similar to performance, the level of happiness at work for internals is also greater in less structured departmental environments, which are associated with early stage of the organizational lifecycle.

The interaction of the two polar opposites of internality and externality which leads to a bi-local (Torun and April 2006) or a balanced locus of control expectancy (April et al., 2012) is not well understood (S. Connolly, 1980). It is expected that perception of control are a collaboration of situation-specific expectancies that vary from one life function to another (Lefcourt, 1976b); such as, work locus of control (Spector, 1988) which is an expectancy specific to the work environment or health locus of control (Reynaert et al., 1995) which is specific to generalized expectancy of an individual in respect to their health. An individual may be an internal in respect of one situation specific expectancy, and external for another, leading to a balanced generalized locus of control expectancy. This makes explaining the lack of correlation is more difficult due to this multitude of contributors to the generalized expectancy. Nonetheless, the resilience of a balanced locus of control to the work environment is evident in the lack of any correlations with any constructs of happiness at work or any components of engagement at work. This finding is supported by the fact that the highest subjective well-being (Diener et al., 1985) was found to be associated with a balanced locus of control expectancy by April, Dharani and Kai (2012).

8.2 Factors Affecting Happiness at Work

The antecedents of constructs of happiness at work found in the qualitative analysis closely resemble those discussed in the literature review, with most being on the list can be antecedents of job satisfaction by Saane et al. (2003). The comment that some attribute their happiness at work to their own personality or cognitive effort to be happy at work is an addition to the list. Due to the low number of such comments, the significance of the factor is contestable.

More relevant findings were discovered when separating the comments from internals, bi-locals or those with a balanced locus of control expectancy, and externals in an attempt to contribute to new knowledge creation.

While employees seem to express their concern regarding the stressor, 'workload', regardless of their expectancies, segregating the comments from the different expectancies reveals mention of a positive attribute with the workload by internals, such as: *"I love my job but sometimes the work load is just to[o] much"* (internal, stage 2, 25, 33, 20), and a blatant need from decrease in the stressor is demanded by externals, evident from comments such as: *"Just in a bad place mentally from being over[]worked"* (7, stage 1, 16, 30, 13).

With 'leadership' concerns or complements found to be the second most important factor for employees in general, further analysis revealed that the level of importance seems higher for both externals and internals than those with a balance locus of control expectancy. This is possibly explained by the fact that individuals with an external locus of control expectancy depend of powerful others; thus, allowing their level of happiness to also be dictated by leaders, who are powerful others in their spectrum (Lefcourt, 1976a). *"The partners and staff at my firm are amazing, they are supportive, understanding and believe in me. They actually care and look after me"* (external, stage 2, 30, 48, 24). On the contrary, internals, who are attributed to personally embody leadership qualities in plentiful Western academic literature (Anderson and Schneier 1978), also ranked leadership (Harju et al., 2018) to be of great importance to their happiness at work but assigned demands or blames towards them. One respondent states: *"Management need to make good on their [p]romises. If questionnaires are taken, management need to do something about the feedback"* (internal, stage 2, 20, 34, 18) expressing his/her demand from the leadership. It appears that a balance of the two expectancies allows for a limitation to dependence on the leadership, and also a limit towards the demands from them.

For externals and those with a balanced locus of control, the importance of 'training' and learning from the job is evident. However, evident in training comments from internals is the complaint of lack of training or competence of others, and their frustration of working with employees or external parties of a low calibre. One internal demand: *"More training should be given to new trainees. I feel that for the first 6 months of articles the trainees need to be solely involved in accounting before they begin working on Caseware"* (4, stage 3, 25, 42, 18). In review of shortcomings of internals (April et al., 2011), lack of trust leading to an inability to benefit from others' strengths, and difficulties working in groups and with other people due to narcissistic behaviour possibly explain this shortcoming for the trait for optimizing happiness at work. In contrast to the above, as remarked by the employee with an external expectancy, there is a clear link in the mind of employees between learning and happiness at work: *"It[']s great when you learn new and exciting things in your industry in order to keep your job satisfaction at bay"* (7, stage 5, 21, 38, 18). Employees with a balanced locus of control expectancy and with highest level of happiness at work in this research states: *"[I] am so grateful for being given this opportunity to work for [M&Ms]"*

Pdb EL. [I] am so passionate about my job and [I] have learned so much and still do. I have the best bosses and colleagues” (balanced, stage? 30, 54, 21). Similarly, this view is shared by others of a balanced expectancy: “Regarding the field – auditing can be enjoyable as it is a field in which you challenge yourself as well as learn so much” (balanced, stage 3, 15, 33, 10). As such, the importance of personal training appears more important to those with a balanced locus of control, while working with subordinates of high calibre who are well trained seem important to internals.

Comments from internals regarding the ‘team’ also have a different tone to the comments from other expectancies. Internals are noted to be more critical or demanding of the team, and along with the comments noted regarding demands from leadership, and competence and training of colleagues, appear more demanding than other expectancies in their tone of mentioning comments that bear the same or similar theme to those with an external or a balanced locus of control expectancy. For example, statement such as: *“Need a bit more working as team, not individualism. Else, it is good and challenging” (4, stage 3, 27, 36, 16).*

In reference to ‘career’, the concerns raised relate to being placed in a department which does not fulfil the individual’s future aspirations. Due to the lack of proactivity associated with externals (Lefcourt, 1976b), the comments are only observed from employees with an internal or a balanced locus of control expectancy. Another internal states: *“I hate my job because I have to do audits 99% of the time when I am actually in the Accounting/tax department” (internal, stage 1, 14, 17, 9).* A balanced locus of control respondent states: *“[I] feel that my job lacks depth or meaning – it[’]s very administrative I get that and I was warned about it but I feel like I am not been stretched or used for my capabilities. I have much more to offer I feel! (balanced, stage 1, 11, 23, 19);* thus, highlighting the importance of a being in the right department based on their career choice and capabilities.

Complaints about ‘pay’ were notably more important to mention for internal and externals than for those with a balanced locus of control expectancy. An internal states: *“Please offer market[-]related salaries and benefits” (internal, stage 1, 29, 41, 18),* and another states: *We do not get a 13th cheque. Looking for jobs with 13th cheque” (internal, stage 2, 28, 31, 21).* Similarly, a respondent with an external locus of control expectancy states his/her wish to: *“... Receive more benefits (Pension, medical, travel claim etc.)” (external, stage 1, 20, 24, 8).* These comments are indicative of the importance of pay as a response to the work is demanded by internals, while importance of pay to externals is for fulfilling their needs as demanded from a powerful other.

Similar to pay, the attribution of happiness at work to one’s own ‘personality’ is only noted from internals and externals. However, reading between the lines of the comments, where an internal states: *“My job may not seem like much to most people but I am the type of person that believes that anything I do must be done to the best of my abilities” (internal, stage 1, 25, 48, 24)* alludes towards self-belief by using the term ‘I’, unlike an employee with external expectancy seem to state something similar but phrased as: *“Most*

times, how happy you are in your job depends on your happiness too and what you make of it” (7, stage 1, 29, 43, 24). While inconclusive, the comment seems to be acquired from learnt behaviour rather than fundamental core belief or personality trait.

8.3 Limitations of this Research

Limitation of this research are elements that should be considered when generalizing the theory to the overall population from the sample, as these elements may restrict the realizability of this research conducted (Saunders et al., 2012). For example, the data collected from a sample set is prone to theory building, rather than generalization.

Several limitations expected from the research were successfully overcome. The sample was not expected to have normal distribution of locus of control due to the academic requirements for the profession, which are said to be a strength of internals (Allen et al., 1974). The data reflected this normal distribution which ensures representation of all expectancies to the theory proposed. Furthermore, since the accounting profession is aged, there was a fear that number of departments that would fall into the categories of growth and decline leading to sample size limitations (Hyatt and Prawitt 2001). Once again, the data did not adhere to this, allowing for representation of departments in early stages of development as well, confirming that it is not just age that dictates the position of the organization on the organizational lifecycle (Adizes & Naiman, 1988). The response rate can also introduce a limitation, and yet again this research was successful in ensuring a rate that allows for reliability of the findings.

Nonetheless, this research is not without limitations. The sample chosen was of 35 departments in a big 10 accounting firm from different offices across South Africa. As such, there is a limitation of homogeneity of the sample for the study (Leedy and Ormrod 2005). The country, organization, white-collars nature of work, limited professions in the same industry, and nature of work are all limited in scope. This would limit the generalizability of the findings, and caution must be exercised when expecting similar correlations to this research in other populations.

Additionally, the design was cross-sectional and not longitudinal. While the departments are representative of any stage of development on the organizational lifecycle, the study has limitations in being representative of a department as it grows along the organizational lifecycle.

The study proposes use of self-reported data only, known to bear the limitation of problems derived from memory restrictions and perception differences. A more comprehensive design would include physical ways of measuring happiness at work, though hormonal or neuro-scans to test ‘happy chemicals’ (Nguyen, 2014), such as endorphins, and brain area activations. However, such a scope would lie more under medical science than management studies.

Human errors can occur when surveys are being completed. Despite the sample being white collar workers which are fluent in the language used for the survey, and computer literacy which should assist with completion of online questionnaires, there were instances where even the partners completing the surveys chose the wrong department, from the drop down list, when completing the organizational lifecycle questionnaire (Lester et al., 2003). While such errors in the survey completed by partners of the firm were spotted, as only one response was expected per department, which allowed for the researcher to correct the errors after subsequent communications with the partners, such errors are indicative of the fact that some employees may have made such an error as well when completing the survey regarding happiness at work and their locus of control expectancy. It is anticipated that the high response rate would allow the data to 'absorb' such errors and would not lead to incorrect correlations. Additionally, the open-ended question allowed for scope for triangulation of the department chosen in the survey. For example, one respondent stated to be a part of Audit department in comments, but had chosen the Administrative department. Such errors, though very infrequent, if found were corrected by the researcher.

Additionally, evidence of employees completing the questionnaire twice was also noted, which would lead to incorrect data points for the analysis. It is hoped that due to the sample size of this research that such instances will not distort the correlations. The statistics software, 'SPSS', was used to try highlight such instances. Same department, with similar locus of control expectancy and similar happiness at work levels were scrutinized for duplication. Furthermore, triangulation of the result with identical comments in the open-ended question allow for further identification of such duplications.

The research questioned employees about their level of happiness at work using academic, reliable and validated surveys. Such an approach is subject to "problems derived from memory restrictions and perception differences" (Leedy and Ormrod 2005). Since the study is in respect of employee perception, it is not deemed necessary to accompany this research with observational confirmations of the perceptions reported. The choices of scales that are chosen are ensured to be stable, and not materially influenced by events that may have occurred at the time of completing the survey. This would assist to ensure accuracy of data.

Nonetheless, all limitations of scope in respect of the constructs are retained by this research conducted. For example, while it is agreed that locus of control scales has 'robust theoretical underpinning' (Adeyemi-Bello, 2001), it can be argued that the time has come for the instrument to modernize in a way to embrace networked society, characterized by extensive cross-border collaborations (Lee-Kelley, 2006). Thus, the limitations in the construct measurement are not overcome by this research proposed.

In addition to research design, data analysis elements have limitations too. For quantitative analysis, Spearman Rank Order Correlation tests bear the limitation that they are less powerful than parametric methods; however, since the assumptions underlying the parametric methods of hypothesis testing are

likely not to be met, these tests are more appropriate to use, as they are less likely to give distorted results when the assumptions fail (Utts and Heckard 2007).

In respect of qualitative analysis, though this research was conducted confidentially with no information regarding the individual available to the researcher, employees are inclined to provide socially acceptable responses as they are aware that their responses will be read by a researcher, who is presumed to be academic and logical. They may not wish to reveal their real antecedents for variations in their level of happiness at work. While confidentiality was ensured, there may be fear of disclosure of their identity which could lead to repercussions (Rothwell, 1996).

Another limitation to the qualitative analysis was the lack of response to the open-ended question. There were frequent responses that stated: “no” or “none”, limiting the qualitative investigation to 53 participants.

9 Conclusions

This research tested the relationship between constructs within the concept of happiness at work and the department’s stage of development in the organizational lifecycle. The data analysis concludes that there is a weak, but statistically significant relationship between the two components of happiness at work (job engagement and job satisfaction) and the stage of development of the department on the organizational lifecycle, but no relationship for affective job commitment (Figure 12). The negative correlations entail that the further the department is along the organizational lifecycle, the less is the self-reported level of engagement and satisfaction. However, since the relationship is weak, it means that the difference in the level of job engagement and satisfaction in departments with respect to the organizational lifecycle curve is not large.

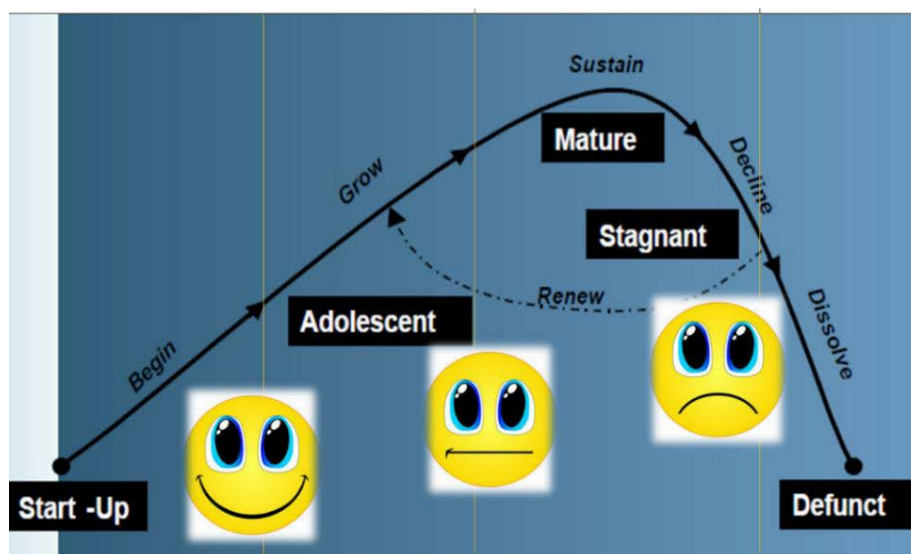


FIGURE 12: BUSINESS LIFECYCLE AND HAPPINESS AT WORK

Introducing one of the core personal evaluation traits (Judge and Bono 2001) of locus of control (Rotter, 1966) to the analysis reveals the significance levels increase to 1% level and the strength of the relationship is found to be strong for all the constructs for those with an external locus of control expectancy. A statistically significant relationship fails to exist for those with a balanced locus of control expectancy for all constructs of happiness at work and components thereof. A medium strength relationship for internals is statistically significant at 5% level for job engagement (dictated by vigor and not dedication and absorption) and job satisfaction, with no relationship for affective job commitment. As such, the role of locus of control as a moderator to the relationship is evident (Figure 13). It can be concluded that employees with a balanced locus of control expectancy are resilient to the external environment for their level of happiness at work. Those with internal expectancy are sensitive to it, particularly for their level of engagement (vigor) and job satisfaction, while externals are most dependent on the external environment for their level of happiness at work.

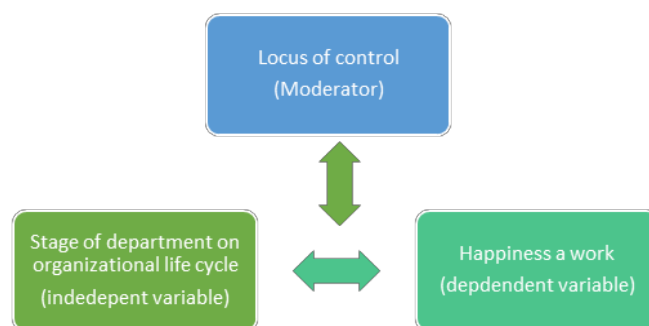


FIGURE 13: BUSINESS LIFECYCLE AND HAPPINESS AT WORK RELATIONSHIP WITH LOCUS OF CONTROL AS A MODERATOR

The above is explained as the dependency on powerful others, which smaller departments with proximity to leaders allow for a preferred environment for externals. Departments in early stages of development are also preferred by internals, as such organizations allow response to actions of their employees, which is desired to the trait of internals, and these organizations provide the opportunity to control aspects at work.

Investigating the reasons for happiness at work through survey enquiring the three most important aspects reveal eight core reasons that determine happiness at work. These are as follows, listed from most frequent reasoning to the least frequently mentioned: workload pressures, leadership influences, training and learning, joys or pains of working with the team, recognition for job performance and employees being heard, personal career progression, pay, and employee's own personality respectively. These follow the known antecedents of job satisfaction (van Saane, 2003).

Categorizing the reasons provided by respondents into responses by different expectancies reveals that recognition for work is most important to bi-locals, while career progression is most important to internals and those with a balanced locus of control expectancy. Externals in comparison with employees of other

expectancies attribute higher influence by pay and personality, as do internals to a degree, but these factors do not seem to play a vital role as self-recognized by those with balanced locus of control (**Error! Reference source not found.**).

Additionally, even when same factors were mentioned as antecedents to happiness at work by respondents, the nature of the comment varied based on the expectancy of the respondent. Workload concerns were mentioned along with positivity about the work by internals, but not from those with a balanced or external expectancy. Leadership concerns or appreciation were mentioned in different lights as well. Externals emphasise the dependence on the leadership, management or powerful others, while internals, known to bear the trait of leadership, listed demands from their leaders. Similarly, in respect of training, the comments from internals were about concerns of colleagues, sub-ordinates and external stakeholders' competence which required attention through training, while those with a balanced or external expectancy regarded training for themselves as important for their level of happiness at work.

10 Purpose of the Research

10.1 Personal Purpose

The researcher believes that “warmth, supportiveness and parental encouragement [which] seem to be essential for development of an internal locus” are prime reasons for the researcher’s highly internal locus of control expectancy (Lefcourt, 1976b, p. 100). As a secondary factor, academic success has further added to positive reinforcement (Skinner, 2009) for the researcher, which supported his internality. Nonetheless, a score of zero on the Rotter (1966) I-E scale is unusually low. None of the respondent in the study had scored a zero. High level of boredom experienced in very structured organizations, and high motivation to set-up structures in growing organizations (Hyatt and Prawitt 2001) entail that this research has personal interest in the result to try and achieve a high level of happiness at work for himself.

It is for the above reason that the researcher left large corporate environment of FedEx in a Group Finance Manager role to join an SME sized family business enterprise in the position of Finance Manager; hence, opting for a demotion for undertaking the change. The researcher experienced high levels of happiness at work, which possibly contributed to performance, leading to annual promotions to reach the position of Chief Finance Officer in five years. The researcher believes the above was due to a host of reasons; however, the need to control and enjoyment in steering the finances of a corporate (be it with the directions proposed by the Directors in Board Meetings on a quarterly basis) allowed for sufficient autonomy which was essential for being engaged with the company, job satisfaction, resulting in feeling of belonging to the organization which led to affective organizational commitment. The feeling that the organization was ‘owned’ by the researcher correlates well with research regarding entrepreneurship and internality (Kaufmann et al., 1995).

Generalizing of the theory would allow personal learning purpose to others as experienced by the researcher, while enhancing the knowledge of the core self-evaluation trait of locus of control. Moccia (2016: 144) states: “The new millennium goal is to be happy at work”. For individuals targeting happiness at work, this research can provide a tool that allows them to choose the right organization or department within an organization that bears aspects which fit well with their locus of control personality trait, which would increase the chances of being happy at work. As such, the research will contribute towards self-help and self-understanding educational material.

Career success is defined as positive psychological outcomes, or achievements, one has accumulated as a result of experiences over the span of their working life (Lau and Shaffer 1999; Judge et al. 1995) aiming at positive psychological outcomes, where an individual can live by their value systems on a day to day basis (Spranger, 1928). A correlation between a psychological trait and its optimal fit to characteristics of the stage in the organizational lifecycle can provide the working population with a tool that assists in achieving person-organization fit, or supplementary fit (Lauver and Kristof-Brown 2001) to anticipate their level of job satisfaction, job commitment, and engagement. Thus, the area of study expands into ‘self-help’, as this research can be used to solve personal problem in respect of choice of work.

10.2 Organizational Purpose

Research regarding employee happiness at work and its impact on organizations is gathering empirical evidence, leading to increased responsiveness by employees towards employee well-being. While the implications exist for all organizations, conducting the research in M&Ms, a large accounting firm, makes it particularly useful for partnerships. This is essentially due to the fact that partnerships can be regarded as multiple organizations due to the structure where each department is a separate business unit, led by a partner who is the equity holder, where employees have distinct professions, yet operate in a large global organization.

Specifically for M&M, the research compared job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and engagement in different departments. This was useful to the firm in identification of departments which required attention of the human resources department, and those that led the firm in ensuring happy employees. The managers and the partners can learn from those who scored highly on the average scores of the department for various constructs tested. For example, a low level of vigor was found to be strongly associated with workload, and improvements to work load based on planned, resource allocation and matching of workload to other aspects such as appreciation, remuneration or recognition could be used to avoid low levels of engagement or burnout.

The accounting firms have faced the problem with employee turnover for decades. The Enron scandal which led to the collapse of Arthur Andersen, and specifically in the context of South Africa, the charges against KPMG have exacerbated not only turnover, but also introduced the level of desire for entry into the profession. The problem exists highest at trainee level, where graduates join the company to train for their

professional qualifications, but exit after completion, before contributing substantially towards the earnings of the firms. Staff turnover is blamed on the similarities of the firms allowing for ease of transfer from one of the other. However, this explanation ignores the exit of employees to industry, which forms a significant portion of staff turnover. As such, this research can have a direct practical use for these firms. This approach attempts to avoid: knowledge transfer problem by gaining the knowledge at practice and offering the findings as a solution, theory and practice misalignment, and avoiding the arbitrage of the knowledge production by ensuring engaged scholarship (McKelvey, 2006; van de Ven, 2006).

Not just the accounting firms, one of the major costs faced by organizations in managing human resources is the cost of employee turnover. The benefits of retaining employees that have gone through the learning curve with the organization provide practical, first-hand knowledge of the organization that is costly to replace (Guilding, Lamminmaki, & McManus, 2014). Correlations between constructs of job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment with employee turnover are evident in research (Porter et al., 1974). The researcher hopes that an investigation into an individual's locus of control expectancy and level of happiness at work based on position in the organizational lifecycle would allow development of a tool for organizations to either recruit appropriately based on the position of the organization in the lifecycle, or allow human resources department to place employees into departments more suitably, based on the position of the department on the organizational lifecycle.

Understanding personality traits that align well with organization characteristics enhances our understanding of person-organization fit. This understanding can assist to contribute to research tackling the major problem of incapacity to work-depression. Opposite of engagement, or burnout, is seen as a form of depression; hence, directly linked to the problem being addressed by this research (Schonfeld and Bianchi 2016). Correlations between job satisfaction and depression are also evident (Steyn and Vawda 2015). As such, managing the constructs that allow for happiness at work – the constructs of job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment and engagement (Fisher, 2010) – can provide a helping hand towards the bigger problem of incapacity due to depression.

Qualitative research allowed an opportunity for the employees to express their concerns and vocalize the aspects of the organization and department that allow them to be happy. This information is useful for the firm in understanding which aspects require their attention in respect of affect at work. Additionally, the opportunity to express allows for 'venting' of concerns which is expected to improve the levels of happiness in the organization, and allow an 'ice-breaker' for discussion on the subject. The authorization of the research also allows employees to recognize that their happiness at work is of importance to the leaders of the organization.

10.3 Academic Purpose

Theory building is said to be: "important for advancing of knowledge of management. But it is also a highly challenging task" (Shepherd and Suddaby 2016, p.1). Theoretical contribution is the extent that a

theory bridges a gap between two theories, or generates new insights of existing theories (Bacharach, 1989); hence, highlighting the need for the outcome to be novel and useful (Corley and Gioia 2011).

The researcher has posed a problem statement, making conjunctures on a possible link between the problem and job-organization fit due to misalignment of locus of control to the position of the organization in the business lifecycle to build on a theory. As such, the theory building approach is one of a ‘thought experiment’, whose value is occurs in creative experimentation to produce novel theory (Davis, Eisenhardt, & Bingham, 2007).

Adizes Business Lifecycle (Adizes, 2017) addresses the personality characteristics required at each stage of the organization, and those essential for moving an organization from one stage to the other. While the characteristics sound similar to those associated with internality, balanced locus of control expectancy (April et al., 2012), and externality (Cherlin and Bourque 1974), a confirmation through correlation study conducted allowed for theoretical contribution to the organizational lifecycle by ‘complexification’, in respect of adding a construct to the model that is high endurance and high exclusivity, hence level one according to Shepherd and Suddaby (2017).

The researcher believes that while each individual in any society seeks happiness, the clarity, consensus and understanding of the topic is abysmal. Conflict in literature has highlighted the need to rethink and review existing theories for a new combination of construct to contribute the larger idea. Fisher (2010) has proposed the combination of job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment and engagement after her review on the subject of happiness at work; hence, identifying the core constructs, or ‘main characters’ for this research (Shepherd and Suddaby 2016, p.7). Testing the proposed notion of the three constructs as collectively contributing to the concept of happiness at work would allow the researcher to test Fisher’s (2010) proposition, allowing an opportunity to join the conversation on the subject.

The literature of locus of control is brim-full with appreciation of internality as the optimal trait in many aspects of life and organization (Lee-Kelley, 2006). The challenge to this has been introduced increasingly, but by comparatively fewer scholars (Hyatt and Prawitt 2001; April et al. 2011). This research can potentially add to the literature challenging the traditional notion on the subject, reinforcing the concept of a balanced locus of control expectancy (April et al., 2012)

The above can assist in theoretically challenging the linearity assumption of the locus of control scale. With similarities to ‘pragmatic empirical theorizing’ (Shepherd and Suddaby 2016, p.20 citing Charles Saunders Pierce 1958), since the scale is seen as combination of two linear scales by April et al. (2012) in the context of subjective well-being (Diener et al., 1999), the challenge to the linearity can be explored further from the study proposed to review the challenge in the context of happiness at work to explore the middle-ground – the bi-locals, shared responsibility, or a balanced locus of control.

11Future Research

As highlighted in the limitations to the research, there is a limitation of homogeneity of the sample for the study (Leedy and Ormrod 2005). The country, organization, white collars nature of work, limited professions in the same industry, and nature of are all limited in scope. The research can be conducted in alternative countries, industries, professions, and organizations to allow for greater generalization of the theory proposed in this research (Peshkin, 1993).

The variability of happiness at work for different departments in this research within the organization was substantial. As shown in figure, the highest ranked for happiness at work amongst all the departments was Port Elizabeth office's in-house team, while the second lowest ranked for the entire organization was also Port Elizabeth office field audit, followed closely by accounting and tax departments at the same office. This challenges the notion that happiness at work can be calculated as means or medians of a large group of people at the same office location, let alone at an organizational level that may consist of many locations (Totterdell et al., 1998). One research participant in this research states: *"In an Audit firm the department manager determines the mood"* (internal, stage 1, 24, 49, 24), highlighting that some vital drivers of happiness at work are potentially closer to the employee than at an organizational level. Since happiness of a group of people is calculated using averages of happiness of the members of the group, research into group size that accurately allows for generalization of the level of happiness of a group of people needs further investigation (Mason & Griffin, 2005). As stated by Ashkanasy (citing Blanchflower & Oswald, 2011) in his conclusion, highlighting that due to the complexity of the concept: "Yes, we do need an interdisciplinary approach, but let's not forget levels of analysis", emphasizing the possible foundational concern of group level of happiness. Alternatively, there exists a scope for creating a different measures for unit level happiness than averages of personal level of happiness at work of those in the group (Totterdell, 2000).

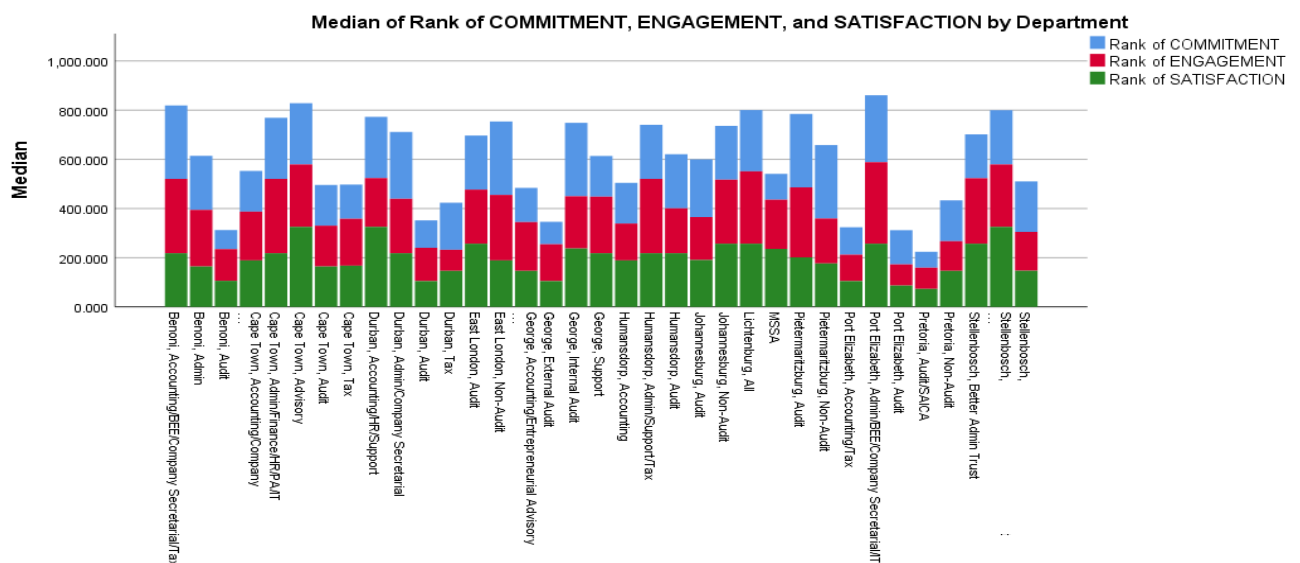


FIGURE 14: BAR GRAPH OF CONSTRUCTS OF HAPPINESS AT WORK BY DEPARTMENT.

While correlation tests can be conducted between locus of control and each of the constructs based on Fisher's (2010) proposed the use of: job satisfaction, commitment and engagement, testing the proposed notion of the three constructs as collectively contributing to the concept of happiness at work by combining the constructs that lead to best correlation based on the weighting of the dimensions can be explored in further research enable multiple patterns (typologies) (Fiss, 2011). Weighting for each variable can possibly be calculated using the modelling process on specialist computer software that allows for closest correlation to be generated using variable weightings on each variable identified calculation of happiness at work. Data modelling is said to: "focus on the establishing correspondence between organization of the data in databases and concepts for which the data is being stored" (Dillon, Chang, Hadzic, & Wongthongtham, 2008). This presents the potential researcher with an ambitious, multi-organizational, and possibly longitudinal study to discover a possible way of combining different facets of happiness at work in a meaningful manner so as to develop a single measure for happiness at work capacity (Dr. K. Ramaboa, 5 February 2019, Personal Interview).

The qualitative analysis in this research conducted presents an inductive study (Lind and Goldkuhl 2007) of the reasons why internals are happier in departments that are in early stages of development and proposes that these reasons are different from those stated by externals for their preference of departments in early stages of the organizational lifecycle also. The inductive study, though conducted with qualitative rigor (Gioia, Corley, & Hamilton, 2013), requires a further deductive study using quantitative method to conclude the findings of this research using statistical analysis the findings of this research.

In addition to the internal and external locus of control expectancy, the concept of dual control, or what is called "shared responsibility", is described as a balance of externality and internality (Torun and April 2006). How these expectancies coexist is not completely understood, but it can be expected that a combination of internal and external expectancies that exist in different situations can lead to a generalised expectancy that is balanced. For example, a belief that health is a consequence of one's own lifestyle choices (an internal health locus of control expectancy (Wallston et al., 1978)), while career success as subject to a host of complex interactions (externality in work locus of control expectancy (Spector, 1988)) is one way in which a generalized locus of control expectancy would be balanced (April et al., 2012). This research conducted highlights a 'special position' between the two expectancies that does not correlate to happiness at work due to external factors arising from 'position' of the department in the organizational lifecycle. Further research into what allows such 'immunity' of one's happiness at work from the environment deserves investigation.

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13Appendix

13.1 Organizational Lifecycle: A 5 Stage Empirical Scale (Lester et al., 2003)

Changed tracked and reviewed by Dr. Don Lester (personal communication, June 2 and 7, 2018) and Dr. Parnell (Personal communication 29 May 2018)

Scale of 1 to 5. (1) Strongly disagree. (2) disagree. (3) neutral. (4) agree, and (5) strongly agree.

Department Size

- ☐ Our ~~department organization~~ is small, both in size and relative to ~~our competitors~~ other departments in the firm. (Stage 1)
- ☐ As a ~~firm~~ department, we are larger than most of ~~our competitors~~ other departments in the organization, but not as large as we could be. (Stage 3)
- ☐ We are a widely dispersed ~~organization~~ department, with a board ~~for decision making of directors and shareholders.~~ (Stage 4)

Power

- ☐ The seat of power in our ~~firm~~ department is primarily in the hands of ~~the founder~~ me. (Stage 1)
- ☐ Power in our ~~firm~~ department is spread among a group of several ~~owners/investors~~ partners. (Stage 2)
- ☐ Power in our ~~firm~~ department is concentrated in our vast number of ~~shareholders~~ partners. (Stage 3)

Organizational structure

- Our ~~firm's~~ department organizational structure could best be described as simple. (Stage 1)
- ☐ Our structure is ~~department based and~~ functional, becoming much more formal. (Stage 3)
- ☐ Structure in our ~~firm~~ department is divisional or matrix in nature, with highly sophisticated control systems. (Stage 4)
- ☐ Our structure is centralized with few control systems. (Stage 5)
- ☐ In our ~~organization~~ department, we have some specialization (~~accountants and possibly engineers, e.g.~~) and we are becoming somewhat differentiated. (Stage 2)

Information processing

- ☐ Information processing could best be described as simple, mostly word-of-mouth. (Stage 1)
- ☐ Information processing is best described as monitoring performance and facilitating communication between departments. (Stage 2)
- ☐ Information processing is sophisticated and necessary for efficient production and earning adequate profits. (Stage 3)
- ☐ Information processing is very complex, used for coordinating of diverse activities to better serve markets. (Stage 4)
- ☐ Information processing is not very sophisticated, but badly needed. (Stage 5)

Decision making

- ☐ Decision making is centralized at the top of the ~~organization~~ department and considered to be not very complex. (Stage 5)
- ☐ Most decisions in our ~~firm~~ department are made by a group of ~~managers~~ partners who utilize systematic analysis, but who are still fairly bold. (Stage 2)
- ☐ Most decisions in our ~~firm~~ department are made by managers, task forces, and project teams who are trying to facilitate growth through participation. (Stage 4)
- ☐ Most decisions in our ~~firm~~ department are made by a few managers who take a conservative, internally political approach. (Stage 5)

13.2 Questionnaire to the Employees of the Departments:

Please provide name and location of the department: _____

Please confirm if you have been with the department for over 6 months (half a year).

13.2.1 Locus of Control (Rotter, 1966)

Please select one statement of each pair which you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you are concerned. In some cases, you may discover that you believe both statements or neither one to be true. In such cases, please select the one you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you're concerned. Be sure to select the one you actually believe to be truer than the one you think you should choose or the one you would like to be true. This is a matter of personal belief; obviously there is no right or wrong answer.

1. ☐ One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.
... ☐ There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.
2. ☐ The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense.
... ☐ Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.
3. ☐ I have often found that what is going to happen, will happen.
... ☐ Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.
4. ☐ In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test.
... ☐ Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is often useless.
5. ☐ Becoming a success is a matter of hard work. Luck has little or nothing to do with it.
... ☐ Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.
6. ☐ The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions.
... ☐ This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it.
7. ☒ In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.
... ☐ Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.
8. ☐ Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.
... ☐ Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability, and luck has little or nothing to do with it.
9. ☐ As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand, nor control.
... ☐ By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events.
10. ☐ Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.
... ☐ There really is no such thing as "luck."
11. ☐ Most of the time I can't understand why politicians behave the way they do.
... ☐ In the long run the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well as on a local level.

13.2.2 Happiness at Work (Fisher, 2010)

13.2.2.1 Abridged Job in General Scale (Ironson et al., 1989; S. S. Russell et al., 2004)

Think of your job in general. All in all, what is it like most of the time? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write:

Y for "Yes" if it describes your job (score 3, R score 0)

N for "No" if it does not describe it (score 0, R score 3)

? for "?" if you cannot decide (score 1, R score 1)

- Good
- Undesirable (R)
- Better than most
- Disagreeable (R)
- Makes me content
- Excellent
- Enjoyable
- Poor (R)

13.2.2.2 Job Commitment (Meyer et al., 1993)

Interval measure: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this [organization/department](#).
2. I really feel as if this [organization's department's](#) problems are my own.
3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my [organization/department](#). (R)
4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this [organization/department](#). (R)
5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my [organization/department](#). (R)
6. This [organization department](#) has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

13.2.2.3 Job Engagement (Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003; Seppälä et al. 2009))

0 Never; Almost never 1 - A few times a year or less; Rarely 2 - Once a month or less; Sometimes 3 - A few times a month; Often 4 - Once a week; Very often 5 - A few times a week; Always 6 - Every day

Changes tracked relate to abbreviation of the questionnaire (Seppälä et al., 2009).

VI- Vigor, DE- Dedication, AB-Absorption

1. At my work, I feel that I am bursting with energy (VI#1)
2. ~~I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose (DE1)~~
3. ~~Time flies when I'm working (AB1)~~
4. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous (VI#2)
5. ~~I am enthusiastic about my job (DE#2)~~
6. ~~When I am working, I forget everything else around me (AB2)~~
7. ~~My job inspires me (DE#3)*~~
8. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work (VI#3)
9. ~~I feel happy when I am working intensely (AB#3)~~
10. ~~I am proud of the work that I do (DE#4)~~
11. ~~I am immersed in my work (AB#4)~~
12. ~~I can continue working for very long periods at a time (VI4)~~
13. ~~To me, my job is challenging (DE5)~~
14. ~~I get carried away when I'm working (AB#5)~~
15. ~~At my job, I am very resilient, mentally (VI5)~~
16. ~~It is difficult to detach myself from my job (AB6)~~
17. ~~At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well (VI6)~~

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1 Executive Summary

More than 300 million people are estimated to be living with depression (World Health Organization, 2017). Several fields of studies can address the problem: being a mental issue, the field of psychology can contribute to the research; or medicine, as chronic depression can be pharmaceutically addressed. Confirmed to be the leading cause of work incapacity (World Health Organization, 2017), depression is a serious, current issue, with increasing repercussions in the future for organizations, industries, and economies worldwide. Additionally, “the new millennium goal is to be happy at work”, and it’s popularity infers that “it is very likely that there exists profound sadness at work” (Moccia, 2016, p. 144). Unhappiness at work is not merely a drain for the employee, but a significant cost for organizations in areas of: customer relations, staff retention, turnover, performance, and efficiency, to name a few (Blau and Boal 2016; Adler et al. 2006). The impact is such that it is deemed a robust strategy for competitive advantage that is difficult for competitors to copy (Haughey 1997; Achor 2010; Barney 1991; Nienaber and Martins 2014). Job performance of even the clinically improved patients having had suffered from depression remains consistency worse than control groups (D. A. Adler et al., 2006) highlighting the importance of tackling the problem of unhappiness at work. As such, the field of business management can address the problem through the umbrella concept of happiness at work (Fisher, 2010).

The major dispositional contributors to personal level of happiness are: genetic predisposition (Diener, 2013; A. Weiss, Bates, & Luciano, 2008) and psychological traits (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002). Meta-analysis have concluded a significant correlation between constructs of happiness at work and core self-evaluation traits of: self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability (low neuroticism (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001), as have individual empirical studies (Näswall et al. 2005; Rahim and Psenicka 1996; Chen and Silverthorne 2008a; Kirkcaldy and Furnham 1993). However, the question as to whether same organizational characteristics can act to enhance or regress the level of happiness at work of individuals based on their differences in employees’ locus of control expectancies remains unanswered (Kroeck, Bullough, & Reynolds, 2010). For example, a stable industry environment was seen appropriate for internals, while a dynamic industry more suitable for externals due to their abilities in a chance-dependent scenario (Wijbenga and Witteloostuijn 2007). As such, the need for a correlation study of locus of control expectancy under different organizational characteristics — an investigation of person-organization fit based on locus of control — is evident.

Nonetheless, there exists a problem of consensus, and measurement of happiness at work (Wesarat, Yazam Sharif, & Abdul Majid, 2014). A host of constructs operate within the umbrella of the concept of happiness at work. Review of the literature and empirical evidence led Fisher (2010) to suggest use of: job satisfaction (H. M. Weiss, 2002), affective organizational commitment (Mowday, 1998) and engagement (Kahn, 1990) to be collectively used for empirical testing for the umbrella concept of happiness at work.

A major contributor to happiness at work is the fit between the employee's personality trait and the work environment, culture and others in the organization, known as person-organization fit or supplementary fit (Lauver and Kristof-Brown 2001). It is found to have significant correlation with constructs such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. These correlate more than the correlations observed between these constructs with person-job fit (Bretz and Judge 1994; Edwards 1991; Kristof 1996; Verquer et al. 2003; Westerman and Cyr 2004), which measures the fit between choice of career, profession or nature of work with the personality of the individual. Therefore, researchers in the field of person-organization fit endorse the area for further research (Judge et al., 2002).

In seeking organizational characteristics for such studies, scholars have criticised researchers for: selection criteria of the organizational environmental characteristics, and omissions of certain characteristics based on practicality concerns (Lofquist and Dawis 1969). Distinct organizational characteristics are identified in studies of organizational development, which investigates changes in organizations, and concludes that organizations follow a set path of development – the organization's lifecycle (French and Bell 1995). Unique organizational characteristics have been generalized in respect of: leadership and management style, employee autonomy, sophistication of human resource, sales drive, cost controls, internal controls, to name a few, at different stages of the organizational lifecycle by different models (Adizes 1979; Quinn and Cameron 1983; Greiner 1998; Blau and Boal 2016; Lester et al. 2003). As researchers argue that different personality traits are optimally suitable for different environments (April and Macdonald 2000), Adizes (1979) identifies different personality characteristics that are suitable for different stages in the organization, though not identifying any specific personality traits. As such, the avenue to test personality trait of locus of control, and which expectancies are best suited at different stages of the organizational lifecycle can add to the models of organizational lifecycle.

The above can be researched by asking the following research question: "Investigating the relationship, between organizational lifecycle and happiness at work for employees with different locus of control expectancies, and its antecedents".

The organizations for this research needed to range from start-ups to those with high levels of bureaucracy to cover the range of positions along the organizational lifecycle (Adizes, 1996; Lester et al., 2003). However, a vast variety of organizations introduces many variables in the organization characteristics, making it difficult to attribute correlations to specific organizational differences, or to the employees' locus of control expectancy. Adizes (1988) regarded new departments to be like new organizations; so, the choice of large organizations with sufficient departments presented an ideal sample for the research. Several locus of control researches are conducted in accounting firms (Prawitt 1995; Tsui and Gul 1996; Brownell 2014; Hyatt and Prawitt 2001; Bernardi 2011; Chen and Silverthorne 2008b). Spector (1988) regarded it conclusive of the importance of locus of control expectancy of the employees to the profession and the accounting firms. Additionally, the researcher's background in and qualifications from the industry would allow for credibility and knowledge to this research (Kirk and Miller 1986). Hence, this

research's ideal sample choice was noted as one of the large accounting firms to conduct this research across departments, locations and geographies in the firm. This research was conducted at one of the big 10 accounting firms (code name: M&Ms) in all 35 departments across South Africa. Though this research has limitations due to white collar, profession-specific sampling, the independence of locus of control across cultures (Lefcourt, 1984) makes it more generalizable.

Aligned to the researcher's philosophical stance: ontology of realism (Gill and Johnson 2010) and epistemology of positivism (Guba and Lincoln 1994), this research's methodology sought valid knowledge through measurements (Giddens, 2008). To ensure that the methodological choice is dictated by the researcher's philosophical stance (Holden and Lynch 2004), the method of research conducted was one of surveys, executed through on-line questionnaires that were developed using validated constructs (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012). Ethical considerations: voluntary completion of the survey, confidentiality and anonymity for the firm and the employees, right to privacy, transparency of use of information provided by the researcher, brief on the study, and ethical clearance sought from the university prior to the field research (Rhodes, 2010; M. Sempu, personal communication, 26 June 2018) were ensured.

Firstly, a questionnaire to assess the position of the department in the business lifecycle was completed by the partners of the firm, to place the department the partner is in-charge of to one of five specific stages of the organizational lifecycle (Lester et al., 2003). Following this, an abbreviated questionnaire to test locus of control (Rotter 1966; Valecha and Ostrom 1974), and constructs contributing to happiness at work (Fisher, 2010), namely: job in general scale for measure of job satisfaction (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989; S. S. Russell et al., 2004), affective organizational commitment (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993) and abbreviated Utrecht work engagement scale of job engagement (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003; Seppälä et al. 2009) was completed by the employees in the departments in a second questionnaire. The choice of the questionnaires was based on reports of high validity, and applicability of 'affect' rather than 'cognitive' measures (Brief and Weiss 2002) to align the questionnaires better with the umbrella concept of happiness at work in communications with Prof. Cynthia D. Fisher (Personal communications, 30 May and 11 June 2018).

To ensure reliability and validity: the response rate, between 57% and 62% achieved, was confirmed to meet the required response rate of 50% for the size of the firm (Leedy and Ormrod 2005), Cronbach's Alpha of 0.84 and 0.95 was confirmed to meet internal validity and reliability requirements (Santos, 1999), 1% significance level correlations between 0.6 and 0.9 among the constructs (Aguinis, Pierce, & Culpepper, 2009) contributing to the umbrella concept of happiness at work were tested to confirm constructs contributed towards the concept of happiness at work (Fisher, 2010), normal distribution of locus of control expectancies in the firm, and lack of correlations (β 0.07 and p-value of 0.2) between locus of control and departments' stage of development to ensure normal distributions across the firm were all tested (Punch, 2014) before data analysis. To enhance robustness, triangulation was sought through

addition of questions to the validated questionnaires of the constructs (Welch & Patton, 1992). The positioning of the department on the organizational lifecycle was suggested to be triangulated with age of the department and employee numbers by Dr. John A. Parnell (Lester and Parnell 2008; Lester et al. 2003; Personal communication 29 May 2018). An open-ended question regarding happiness at work allowed for triangulation of by the respondents with the scores of the respondents on the questionnaires contributing to the concept of happiness at work. It also allowed for depth to this research, and provided voice to the findings from the data, that were used to explore themes that emerged (Saunders et al., 2012) for an inductive study (Lind & Goldkuhl, 2006).

Quantitative analysis for the deductive part of this research entailed testing correlations of each construct using Spearman Rank Order Correlation (Utts and Heckard 2007), as the scales of the independent and dependent variables were not identical, requiring categorization through rank. Data analysis revealed a statistically significant relationship between constructs of stage of development of the department and levels of happiness at work, statistically significant at 5% level for affective job commitment, and job satisfaction, and at 1% level significance for job engagement. Negative correlations indicate a higher level of happiness at work in departments in early stages of development. Nonetheless, β values under 0.2 reveal a weak relationship, meaning that the difference in the level of happiness of employees in early stages of development and those in latter stages of development were not large. Additionally, hierarchical regression was used to verify if the strength of the relationship between organizational lifecycle and happiness at work constructs was enhanced by the introduction of locus of control as a variable in a predictive capacity (Dr. K. Ramaboa, 5 February 2019, Personal Interview). The model's predictability strength is increased by locus of control hence concluded as a moderator to the relationship.

The data was split into respondents based on their locus of control expectancies in several ways to check if the relationship varied based on the respondents' expectancy, essentially checking how the trait acts as a moderator to the relationship (Sprung and Jex 2012). Splitting the respondents based on their locus of control expectancies (0-4 for internals, 4-7 for balanced locus of control expectancy, and 7-11 for externals) revealed strengthened relationship for internals to a moderate level (β between 0.20 and ± 0.35) at 5% significance level between job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.21$) and job engagement ($\beta = 0.21$, driven by vigor $\beta = 0.23$) and the department's position on the business lifecycle. Similarly, for externals, the relationship strengthened to a strong level (β between 0.35 and ± 0.50) at 1% significance level between all constructs of happiness at work (job satisfaction $\beta = 0.36$, job commitment $\beta = 0.37$, and job engagement $\beta = 0.35$, driven by vigor $\beta = 0.36$, dedication $\beta = 0.3$ at 1% significance, and absorption $\beta = 0.3$ at 5% significance level) and the department's position on the department on the organizational lifecycle.

The statistical findings are explained using understanding of different locus of control expectancies. Externals with their belief that their happiness is dependent on factors outside their personal control (Carrim, 2006), either with powerful others, chance or luck, fate or attributed to complexity of the world (Brownell, 2014) are inclined to be sensitive to external forces for personal level of happiness in any

environment, including at work. It therefore explains high correlation between position of the department on the organizational lifecycle and externals' level of happiness at work, highlighting their sensitivity to the departmental characteristics to their happiness at work. Similarly, though to a less extent, the preference towards earlier stages in the organizational lifecycle persists for internals. Departments in early stages of development possibly allow internals the chance for taking control (Anderson and Schneier 1978). Additionally, internals interpret reinforcements they receive as contingent upon their own actions (Lee-Kelley, 2006). It can be expected that consequences to internals' actions are increasingly subdued in larger departments, or in departments which are more structured that work efficiently due to policies, procedures and processes. This can be regarded by internals as the department's failure to provide them with the reinforcement of their actions that they anticipate due to their expectancy. This finding correlates well with the reported preference of internals to an unstructured audit environment (Hyatt & Prawitt, 2001). This dependency on external environment is higher for externals than internals as internals are seen as 'masters of their own fate', while externality is related to helplessness, learnt helplessness (Peterson, Maier, & Seligman, 1993) extending to hopelessness (Lefcourt, 1976b) and were found to be more dependent on the department's environment. In fact, the higher the score on the I-E scale (Valecha & Ostrom, 1974), the stronger the correlation was found for the relationship between organizational lifecycle and happiness at work (7.6).

The interaction of the two polar opposites of internality and externality which leads to a bi-local (Torun and April 2006) or a balanced locus of control expectancy (April, Dharani, & Peters, 2012) is not well understood (S. Connolly, 1980). Nonetheless, the resilience of a balanced locus of control is evident that showed no correlation between the position of the department in the organizational lifecycle and any construct of happiness at work. This is supported by April et al.'s (2012) research that found subjective well-being measured through satisfaction with life scale (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985) is highest for those with a balanced locus of control expectancy, possibly explaining it through a resilience of the expectancy to the work environment for personal happiness.

Exploring themes emerging from the open-ended question from the respondents revealed the most frequent comment was in respect of 'workload' – a known stressor in the workplace (Gray-Stanley et al., 2010). This was followed by 'leadership' matters or supervisory concerns, 'training' or learning opportunities, and the 'team's contribution' to a respondent's happiness at work. Additionally, 'career' progression, 'recognition' and 'pay' concerns, and also comments applauding the respondents' own 'personality' for their level of happiness at work were noted as generalized themes. These findings align well with current research on the enablers of happiness at work (Davila, 2005; van Saane, 2003). As such, discussion for the topic is more relevant when segregating the comments from internals, balanced expectancy and externals to contribute to new knowledge creation (Corley & Gioia, 2011).

The level of importance of leadership came across higher for externals and internals than for those with a balanced locus of control expectancy. This is possibly explained by the fact that individuals with an

external locus of control expectancy depend on powerful others; thus, allowing their level of happiness to also be dictated by leaders, seen as powerful others in their spectrum and drivers of their destiny (Rotter and Mulry 1965). On the contrary, internals regarded as harnessing leadership qualities in plentiful Western academic literature (Hiers and Heckel 1977), also ranked leadership to be of great importance to their level of happiness at work. Further analysis reveals a difference in nature of comments on the theme, with externals showing dependency on leadership for happiness at work, while internals expressing demands from the leaders. It appears that a balance of the two expectancies allows for a limitation to dependence on the leader, and also limits towards the demands from them, making it less important an enabler to their level of happiness at work.

The importance of training and learning from the job to happiness at work is evident in comments from all expectancies. However, internals with lack of trust which leads to an inability to benefit from others' strengths, and difficulties working in groups and with other people due to possible narcissistic behaviour (April, Dharani, & Peters, 2011) express their frustration of lack of training of others, while externals and those with a balanced locus of control expectancy draw a clear link between self-learning and their own happiness at work, consistent with current literature (Yan and Turban 2009).

In reference to career, the concerns raised relate to being placed in a department which does not fulfil the individual's future aspirations. Due to the lack of proactivity associated with externals (Lefcourt, 1976a), the comments are only observed from employees with an internal or a balanced locus of control expectancy.

Concerns about pay arose from internals and externals, but not from those with a balanced locus of control expectancy (Staw and Ross 1985). Once again, analysis of the responses reveals a difference in the nature of the concern by the two opposing poles of the expectancy. The importance of pay as a response to their work is demanded by internals (Klein and Wasserstein-Warnet 1999; Lee-Kelley 2006), while comments regarding pay from externals are associated with the need to fulfil their financial or work-life balance needs (Rotter and Mulry 1965; April et al. 2011).

Similar to pay, the attribution of happiness at work to one's own personality is only noted from internals and externals. There are mild hints that internals allude towards higher self-esteem (McCullough, Ashbridge, & Pegg, 1994), while externals appear to present it as learnt behaviour (Bandura, 1978) rather than a fundamental core belief or personality trait (Lefcourt, 1976a).

The research provides self-learning for the researcher and other individuals about which stage on the organizational lifecycle is best suited based on their locus of control expectancy, and some insight into aspects of the departmental environment which are responsible for of these. Functional use of the findings can assist recruitment, placements in departments, or other matters of human resource management ensure happiness at work to assist in reducing incapacity at work due to depression (Ervasti et al., 2015). Academically, this research challenges the notion that there is a 'one-size-fit-all' scenario and that certain

attributes of the work environment are suitable for all personality types. Complexification (Shepherd and Suddaby 2016) of the business lifecycle model, by adding the dimension of locus of control to the theory, provides another opportunity for theoretical contribution. Lastly, the researcher hopes to either enforce or challenge linearity assumption of the locus of control construct (Spector, 1988), and scholars regarding internality as universally desirable (Sprung and Jex 2012).

The research contributes to theory in several ways. Firstly, it presents complexification of the organizational lifecycle in two ways: introduction of the importance of locus of control to different stages of the lifecycle, and secondly by introducing the concepts of happiness at work along the different stages of the organizational lifecycle. The research further challenges the generalized notion of internals to be most suited to organizations. Additionally, the research challenges the notion that externals are more suitable to organizational characteristics that are associated with latter stages of the organizational lifecycle. From the research findings, the research also contributes to theory of locus of control by quantitatively confirming the presence of a position in the middle of the Internal-External (I-E) scale. Lastly, due to the findings where negative correlations between stages of the organizational lifecycle and constructs operating within the umbrella concept of happiness at work for internals and externals, the lack of a correlation for those with a balanced locus of control expectancy challenges the linearity assumption of the I-E scale in respect of affect.

2 Problem Addressed

At the heart of every research project is the problem (Leedy and Ormrod 2005), and “our theories should be problem driven” (Corley and Gioia 2011, p.22), seeking resolutions of the problems faced by the world, valid for the age in which this research is being conducted. Depression (major depressive disorder or clinical depression) is an increasingly common, but serious, mood disorder. It causes severe symptoms that affect how you feel, think, and handle daily activities, such as sleeping, eating, or working. To be diagnosed with depression, the symptoms must be present for at least two weeks (National Institute of Mental Health, 2016). In 2005, the World Health Organization had estimated depression to become the second leading cause of work incapacity by 2020; however, depression topped the list worldwide prematurely, in 2017, having increased 18% between 2005 and 2017 (World Health Organization, 2017). As the leading cause of incapacity to work now, with an alarming record of growth, the seriousness of the problem cannot be underestimated. Cost-of-illness research has shown that depression is associated with an enormous economic burden (P. S. Wang, Simon, & Kessler, 2003).

Several fields of study can address the problem, ranging from psychology (as it is a mental health issue) to medicine (as it can be pharmaceutically addressed). Since multiple dimensions of job performance are found to be impaired by depression; such as, managing mental-interpersonal, time, and output tasks (D. A. Adler et al., 2006), with the impact persisting much after symptoms have improved (Ervasti et al., 2015),

efforts to reduce work-impairment due to depression are needed (D. A. Adler et al., 2006), as the impact is direct, and hard hitting for businesses and organizations. D. A. Adler et al. (2006, p. 1569) state: “the job performance of even the ‘clinically improved’ subset of depressed patients remained consistently worse than the control groups” highlighting the need to address the problem before it arises through enhancing happiness at work.

In the field of organizational management, investigating constructs operating in the work environment that oppose depression, fundamentally happiness at work, is one approach to resolving the problem of unhappiness at work. Constructs contributing to the concept of happiness at work are defined by Fisher (2010) to include: job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment and job engagement. These constructs’ ability to assist with the problem and their inter-relationship with depression is reviewed below:

A vast number of studies have suggested a link between job satisfaction levels and health, though the sizes of the relationships reported vary widely (Faragher, 2005). In respect of mental health, and depression in particular, job characteristics (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback) predicted job satisfaction, as well as stress and depression (Steyn and Vawda 2015). Stressors (Gray-Stanley et al., 2010), such as workload and student behaviour were significant predictors of depression in teachers (Ferguson, Frost, & Hall, 2012). Job satisfaction and self-employment relationship were explained by Bradley and Roberts (2004) through higher levels of self-efficacy and by lower levels of depression. As such, contribution of work to depression through job satisfaction is largely agreed upon, through different catalysts existing at the environmental level, or organizational level, specific events contribution, as well as job specific scenarios exist (Näswall et al., 2005).

Engagement, defined as the opposite of burn-out (Leiter and Maslach 2017), is so closely related to depression that researchers have tested if burn-out is a form of depression. Bianchi et al. (2015, p. 28) reviewed 92 studies regarding the issue of burnout-depression overlap to conclude that the distinction between burnout and depression is ‘conceptually fragile’. It is notably unclear how the state of burnout (i.e., the end stage of the burnout process) is conceived to differ from clinical depression. Schonfeld and Bianchi (2016) state that burnout is a form of depression, given the magnitude of burnout-depression overlap, and recommend that treatments for depression could help workers identified as ‘burned out’.

In reference to affective organizational commitment, which attributes commitment to an organization to passion towards the work or organization, the relationship is seen to be linked through engagement. The extent of engagement or burn-out predicted organizational commitment, whereas job demands were found to predict burnout over time which, in turn, predicted future depression (Hakanen, Schaufeli, & Ahola, 2008). Despite the above correlations suggesting profound relationships to the leading cause of incapacity to work, the term, ‘happiness at work’ is not extensively used in academic research, hence providing relevance and importance of research in the field.

Moccia (2016, p. 144) presents an alternative reason for addressing the concept of happiness at work by stating that: “the new millennium goal is to be happy at work”. Therefore, it is expected that research in the subject will continue, leading to new and more relevant discoveries that are more likely to be implemented in practice. Theoretical examination of the reasons for the above are lagging in literature, but as the world progresses through stages of development, Beck and Cowan (1996) in their book ‘Spiral Dynamics’ claim the world to have progressed to an era which they refer to as the ‘Green MEME’. This is defined by the authors as an era where the emotional needs are increasing in priority over other aspects that were the driving force for the previous MEME. The change is said to be driven by: loneliness, tiredness of competition, questioning of the definition of progress, and recognition of damage to external parties and feeling guilt due to it (Beck and Cowan 1996). This presents a possible reason for the heightened interest in the demand for happiness at work by the millennials. As societal concern shifts from financial survival towards quality of life issues, both in and outside of the workplace, scholarly interest in employee well-being too has risen greatly in recent years. “This greater attention to the antecedents and outcomes of employee well-being, such as job satisfaction, work engagement, and job burnout amongst others, is reflected in the proliferation of theories, constructs, and studies seeking to describe and explain why employees flourish or become exhausted at work, and the effect of employee well-being on individual behaviours and the organization at large” (Ilies, Aw, & Pluut, 2015, p. 827). The reasons for the rise in the phenomenon and regional and cultural variations are largely unexplored. However, a study exploring ‘how happy we are’ ranked ‘paid work’ at 39 out of 40 activities individuals reported engaging in, with being ‘sick in bed’ (Bryson, Forth, & Stokes, 2017) ranking at 40 on the list, making it evident that: “there exists profound sadness at work” (Moccia, 2016, p. 144).

3 Area of Study

Locus of control (Rotter and Mulry 1965) is a psychological social learning theory (Bandura, 1978). Therefore, the personality trait construct for this research is based in the field of psychology. The term psychology is derived from the Greek word ‘psyche’, meaning mind or soul, and also butterfly (Corlett and Pearson 2003). Psychology is defined as a science that sets aside intuitions regarding how the mind works, and uses scientific tools to explore the mind (Jarrett, 2011).

Psychology had been criticized as primarily dedicated to addressing mental illness rather than mental ‘wellnesses’. The purpose of positive psychology is said to: “...begin to catalyze a change in the focus of psychology from pre-occupation only with repairing the worst things in life to also building positive qualities” (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000, p.5). Having a long history in mental ailments and distress, this research investigated the concept of happiness at work, constituting of job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment and job engagement (Fisher, 2010). As such, the scope falls within the movement launched by Seligman (1975) of positive psychology, which called for a discipline to focus on the positive aspects of psyche.

Investigation of happiness at work can be conducted at three different levels: transient, personal and at a unit level (Fisher, 2010). Transient level of happiness at work is event-, affect- and mood-based. Though collectively this form has been proven to have impact on constructs of happiness at work, by its definition it lacks stability (Weiss and Cropanzano 1996). Unit level measures are criticized for mostly using averages of the personal level constructs (Totterdell, Kellett, Teuchmann, & Briner, 1998), which has made personal level of happiness the most frequently studied level of happiness at work by scholars, and is the approach adopted for this research. Jung (cited by Corlett and Pearson 2003, p.xiii) believed that psyche “stretched as far outward as it did inward”. Within the field of psychology, social psychology examines behaviour when individuals naturally mix and merge to form groups to achieve decided goals. Social psychology can be examined within the boundaries of an organization, referred to as organizational or industrial psychology (Corlett and Pearson 2003), representing the field of study for this research.

Positive psychology, within the social or organizational psychology context, is used in the research as a business tool for improving productivity, for example when leaders focus on their team members’ strengths to benefit the organization (Jarrett, 2011). Additionally, the constructs of job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment and engagement being investigated in this research are becoming increasingly important to the field of leadership and human resource management.

In conclusion, the area of study is positive psychology, drawing on organizational psychology, with relevance to business management in the areas of: organizational development, leadership and human resource management. “It holds promise of changing the way executives think about their employees and how to manage them” (Mowday, 1998, p. 399).

4 Literature Review

“The first step in developing a body of knowledge essentially begins with searching previous research to understand how far the people in the field of interest have gone through the issue” (Kumar and Phrommathed 2005, p.43). Therefore, the first step of the research is: “filling in one’s knowledge of the subject and learning what others have said about it” (Rubin and Babbie 2011, p.365) to then progress to develop the theory further. Reliance on peer-reviewed published research was referred to by Isaac Newton (1676 cited by Cronholm, 2005, p. 9) as: “standing on shoulders of giants”; hence, being able to look further. This chapter reviews the literature relevant for investigating the levels of happiness at work along the organizational lifecycle, and the core self-evaluation trait of locus of control (Rotter, 1966).

4.1 Happiness

Happiness is defined as: “state of well-being characterised by emotions ranging from contentment to intense joy” (Oxford University Press, 2005). In the Western culture, thoughts into the concept of happiness started in early Greek philosophy. Since then, many fields of studies have addressed the concept

of happiness, for example: theology, science, psychology, sociology, and economics to name a few (Fisher, 2010). Unfortunately, the philosophic tradition produced many speculations about social conditions for happiness, but with little factual knowledge and evidence. The concept regained interest in the later West-European enlightenment period; however, empirical research was hindered by a lack of adequate techniques. Unsurprisingly, with the wide range of fields addressing the matter with limited research techniques, happiness became a ‘fuzzy concept’ (Diamond and Robinson 2010).

Only in the twentieth century, the social sciences achieved a breakthrough with new methods for empirical research, which opened up the possibility of identifying conditions for happiness inductively. This advance triggered substantiated research, most of which was embedded in the newly established specializations of social indicators research, health-related quality of life research, and recently positive psychology and happiness economics (Veenhoven, 2015). Nonetheless, scientific fundamentals on the subject are crucial to understand to scrutinize current theories in the field of happiness at work briefed below:

4.1.1 Scientific Fundamentals of Happiness

Darwin (1859), in explaining the evolution of species discovered ‘natural selection’ – the adaption of species to their environment to allow them to thrive. To reinforce actions that support successful survival of species, animals, including humans, get a rush of ‘happy chemicals’ (Nguyen, 2014) released by the body when their actions support advancement of the evolutionary interest of the species. The positive feelings derived from the chemicals act as an internalized ‘reinforcement’ (Skinner, 2009) mechanism which forms the essence of all positive emotions. Based on the empirical ‘law of effect’, continuous encouragement of such actions leads to learnt behaviour by the species (Bandura, 1978; Pavlov, 1929).

These happy chemicals are experienced in many situations that allow an individual to survive, such as when, eating, drinking, sitting by a fire, or mating. It is a high arousal form of emotions referred to as pleasure, exhilaration or ecstasy. However, as the behaviour is repeated, ‘diminishing law of returns’ (van de Walle, Malthus, & Appleman, 1977 citing Turgot) ensures the correct balance for the species’ survival, by replacing the release of happy chemicals with ‘happy chemical inhibitors’ (Bergland, 1991); hence, regulating the extent to which the activity or action is pursued. These theories provide scientific fundamentals for Warr’s (2007) vitamin model, that suggests that similar to vitamin supplements, increasing the desired job characteristics for an employee will improve well-being only until deficiencies are overcome, and the happiness experienced from the supplement fades along with the deficiency.

While the above explains the selfish struggle for survival of an individual, providing fundamentals for constructs that measure personal level of happiness at work, unit level constructs describe happiness of collectives in organizations is an inherent desire in all of us. Alfred Adler (1911) concludes that every individual has natural aptitude for community feeling, or social interest. He explains this as an innate ability to engage in co-operative, reciprocal social relations. Individual psychology assumes an essential

co-operative harmony between an individual and the society, and regards conflicts as an unnatural condition. Our own lives have value, only to the extent that we add value to other people's lives (Oles and Hermans 2010). He extends this concept further by stating that the degree of social interests is a good measure of an individual's psychological health (A. Adler, 1911). Maladjusted people are said to lack social goals, with each living a life with only private meaning; hence, rendering exclusive selfish struggle for survival in humans as insufficient for happiness (Diener and Seligman 2002).

Price (1970 cited by Gardner, 2008) applied game theory to natural selection, explaining how rituals that mimic conflict help to conserve a greater gene pool. These games assist in settling the right to food, mate or other survival necessities. Hence, games create a healthy compromise between survival of one's self, and survival of others of the same species. This compromise of oneself for the collective optimizes survival of the species by ensuring a large gene pool for the species. This fundamental provides the basis for the potential of team play to allow for release of the happy chemicals (Totterdell et al., 1998), and rivalry.

So, how does survival of the species and natural selection (Darwin, 1859) incorporate happy chemicals felt by an individual when catering for others? Psychologists (Freud, 1921), sociologists (Bandura, 1978), and group theorists (Bion, 1950) have documented the idea that people are inherently ambivalent about being members of groups and seek to protect themselves from both isolation and engulfment (termed 'overwhelming' by Hollis (1998)) by alternately pulling away from and moving towards their memberships to the group. These pulls and pushes are people's calibrations of self-in-role, enabling them to cope with both internal ambivalences and external conditions (Kahn, 1990) that determines the level of engagement with others. The group can provide safety needs, belongingness, and the need for love; hence, a step above the individual psychological needs at the bottom of Maslow's pyramid (Maslow, 1943).

The Price Equation (Gardner, 2008) was also used by Hamilton (1970) to explain happiness from altruism by defining 'survival of the fittest' (Spencer, 1898) as survival of the fittest gene, and not limited to the survival of the individual member of the species. It highlights the notion that life can be viewed as the genes' struggle for immortality, while the individuals are merely mortal vehicles for the struggle (Dawkins, 1976). Altruism is categorised in three fundamentals concepts:

- Nepotism, where the individual exhibits selflessness for the sake of his genes, through protection of those with whom the gene is shared (e.g. close family).
- Reciprocation, where the individual expects co-operation from the others that may assist in self-preservation.
- Group selection, where sacrifice of the individual would lead to benefits to the group (Boyd and Richerson 2009).

While Nepotism explains the selfish struggle for survival for a species through preservation of their genes, reciprocation and group selection explain altruism, and the positive emotions felt from benefiting others.

Since the birth of first cities 6000 years ago, when individuals left their tribes to join others to create civilizations (Kirby, 2010), our relationships are increasingly founded on such basis, as we forge bonds with strangers to form: acquaintances, alliances, friendships, families and organizations -- with unrelated individuals.

The release of happy chemicals is further extended to situations where an individual from one species assists in the survival of another species, or towards the environment in which it has thrived. Conservation of the environment and other species ensures that the individual can continue to survive (Southwood and Clarke 1999) explaining the drive in humans for welfare of plants, animals and birds and the environment, and the happiness derived from seeking survival of other species.

Conflicts can arise where both opposing actions can allow for happy chemicals to be triggered. For example, killing a wild beast can assist to for an individual to survive allowing for thrill and exhilaration, while protecting the beast and the environment can also assist an individual to derive a different type of happiness, one of content and fulfilment (Derrick et al., 2005) hence challenging the possibility if all forms of happiness can be experienced simultaneously.

In conclusion, the fundamental principle for happiness are explained though the seeds sown by Darwin (1859) in his concept of evolution of species, and these principles match the hierarchy of needs theorised by Maslow's (1943) (Figure 1). While Maslow (1955) emphasizes on the motivation of an individual from an individualistic needs point of view, the theory of survival of species looks at the concept in a more biological manner with emphasis on survival of the individual, gene pool, and the environment. The researcher believes that these form the foundations of all positive emotions and hence the fundamentals for the concept of happiness.

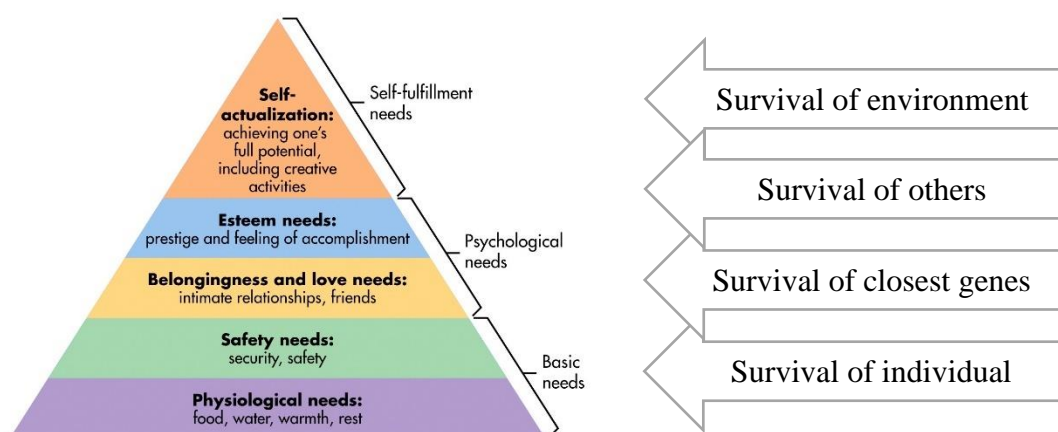


FIGURE 1: MASLOW (1943) HIERARCHY OF NEEDS COMPARED WITH DARWIN (1959) NATURAL SELECTION

SOURCE: [HTTPS://SIMPLYPSYCHOLOGY.ORG/MASLOW.HTML](https://simplypsychology.org/maslow.html)

4.1.2 Conceptualizing Happiness at Work

We spend majority of our life in organizations: from childcare, to institutions of education, our working lives, till retirement homes. Therefore, knowledge of what kind of organizations are the most ‘liveable’ for each of us is an important contribution to one’s happiness (Veenhoven, 2015). The problem regarding lack of happiness at work is still a largely understudied subject (Fisher, 2010), though gaining immense popularity (Moccia, 2016).

A variety of cultures have attempted to theorize happiness at work. For example, the Japanese culture, known for: well-being, good health, and high life expectancy, talks about ‘ikigai’. With no direct translation into English, it is thought to combine the Japanese words ‘ikiru’, meaning “to live”, and ‘kai’, meaning “the realization of what one hopes for” (Oliver, 2018). Together these definitions create the concept of “a reason to live” or the idea of having a purpose in life. This is said to arise when harmony is achieved between love for work, skills needed to work, remuneration for work, and fulfilment of needs at work (Figure 2)

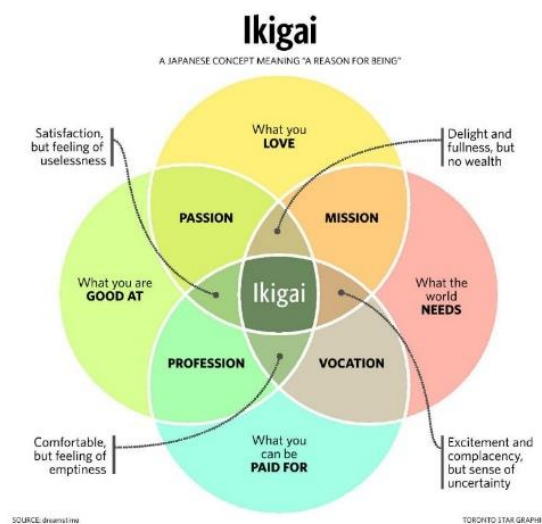


FIGURE 2: THE JAPANESE CULTURE DIAGRAM ABOUT IKIGAI SOURCE:
<https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2017/08/is-this-japanese-concept-the-secret-to-a-long-life>

Similar to ‘ikigai’, academically, the concept of well-being at work (Fisher, 2014) is said to include hedonic well-being, constituting of positive affect, negative affect and life satisfaction; social well-being consisting of acceptance, actualization, coherence, contribution, integration, and positive relationships with others; and eudaimonic well-being arising from autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, purpose in life and self-acceptance.

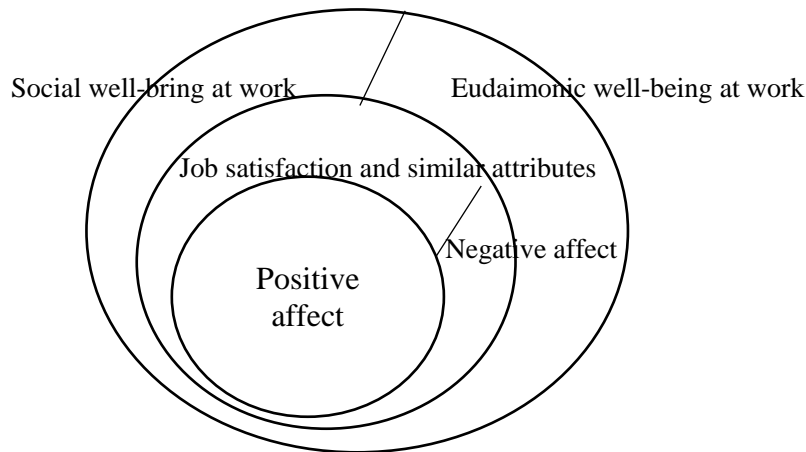


FIGURE 3: DIAGRAM SHOWING ASPECTS OF WELL-BEING AT WORK (FISHER 2014, P.15)

“Well-being [Figure 3] is a dynamic construct that changes over time and fluctuates within a person” (Sonnentag, 2015). Importance of emotional stability and perceived organizational support suggest the importance of measuring the work-related well-being holistically (Soh, Zarola, Palaïou, & Furnham, 2016). Demo and Paschoal (2016) have constructed and validated a well-being scale. Their results supported the previous findings for well-being at work for the affective (hedonic) and cognitive (fulfilment) components. They conclude that a more integrated frameworks including affective well-being component focusing on emotions and the cognitive component that examines long-term processes of growth and self-actualization, both must be jointly evaluated for the wider concept of well-being at work.

The concept of happiness at work is theorized to be a sub-set of well-being at work, comprising of the two circles within the larger concept of well-being at work (Figure 3). Experiences of happiness at work vary, ranging from: transient experiences, experiences at a personal level, and unit level constructs. Transient level of happiness works from the basic literature on moods and emotions, and introduces a theory of affective experience at work, which emphasizes on the role of work events as proximal cause of affective reactions (Weiss and Cropanzano 1996). People also react to the events of their work lives. These events drive their immediate affective states which vary over time ranging from positive to negative. Affective states fluctuate over time and performance implications of affect depend on affect states at those particular times, hence greatly lacking stability. On the contrary, unit level constructs of happiness at a team, department, or any collective within the organization, work mostly with the same measurement options as personal level, but as averages for individual measures of the team members, or alternative approaches that elicit and aggregate individuals’ perceptions of the collective (Chan, 1998; Mason & Griffin, 2005; Totterdell, 2000; Totterdell et al., 1998).

Fisher (2010) explains that happiness arises at work at three levels: environmental (or organizational), job level and event level categories. The environmental contributors include attributes of the organization, a combination of the rational and logical evaluations of aspects, such as job conditions, but also through emotional evaluations such as interpersonal relationships, also known as job-organization fit. Job level targets job-person fit (Lauver and Kristof-Brown 2001), which aligns personal qualities, calibre and

education with the job requirements of the employee with the job (Edwards, 1991), while job-organization fit tests personality fit of the employee with the organization, also known as supplementary fit (Lauver and Kristof-Brown 2001). It must be noted that empirical evidence suggests that job-person fit is less correlated to happiness at work than job-organization fit. Lastly, event level happiness is more transient in nature, capturing specific events that lead to happiness, similar to transient level happiness (Weiss and Cropanzano 1996).

If the concept of happiness at a personal level refers to pleasant moods and emotions, sub-set of well-being and positive attitudes at personal level, then the concept is related to constructs such as: dispositional affectivity, job satisfaction, affective commitment, and typical mood at work (Warr, 2007). Researchers have used terms that overlap, encompass, and correlate with the concept of happiness at work. Fisher (2010), in collectively reviewing the subject, concludes that happiness at work is an umbrella concept that includes large number of constructs. Harrison (2006) combined job satisfaction and organizational commitment into a powerful latent predictor. Fisher (2010) suggests that adding engagement to the construct should result in even better prediction. Based on the above, the three constructs are discussed below:

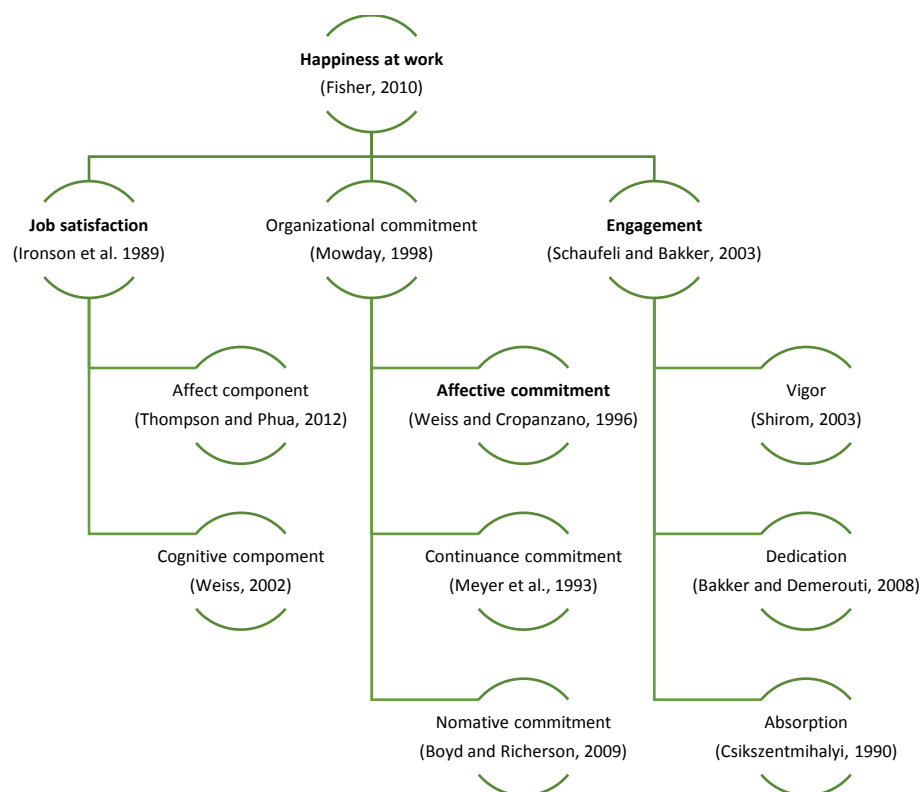


FIGURE 4: CONSTRUCTS WITHIN THE CONCEPT OF HAPPINESS AT WORK IN BOLD WITH LEAD AUTHOR CHOSEN FOR THIS RESEARCH

4.1.2.1 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is by far the most vastly studied of the constructs that contribute to the concept of happiness at work (Fisher, 2010). Unfortunately, such extensive interest has resulted in a vast range of definitions and measures (H. M. Weiss, 2002). The lack of consensus, incompatibilities, lack of validations and a systematic development of the construct has been criticized for over three decades (Thompson and Phua 2012). In an attempt to review the variety of research by scholars, the original definition is traced back the definition from Fisher and Hanna in 1931 as “a product of non-regulatory mood tendency” (Zhu, 2012, p. 293). Locke (1976, p. 1300) defined job satisfaction as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from an appraisal of one’s job or job experiences”. The definitions enforce the emotional aspect of the concept, making it suitable for a study about happiness at work.

While the above emphasise the construct to be based in affect, Eagly and Chaiken (2011) state job satisfaction to be an ‘attitude’, hence concluding it to consist of both cognitive and affect components. While cognitive component assesses: perception, memory, and judgement about work through reasoning; affect at work directly assesses: moods or emotions experienced while working. However, Weiss (2002) describes attitude as an evaluation or judgment made with regard to an attitudinal object, and argues it not to be synonymous with affect, challenging the definition to be solely cognitive. Weiss’ (2002) definition stated job satisfaction as an individual’s positive measurable judgment on the working conditions; thus, regarding it as an internal state, which was an affective evaluation on the job by a degree of liking or disliking it.

A host of measures of job satisfaction emphasize it as a constitutional concept; implying its focus to be on the features of the job and the features of job-related environment. Brief and Weiss (2002, p. 284) stated a decade ago, “it no longer should be acceptable to define job satisfaction one way (affectively) and blindly measure it another (cognitively)”. Since the classic definition identifies the construct to be an emotional state, it challenges measurement scales that focus on descriptions or evaluations such as Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (D. Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967) and Job Descriptive Index (Smith et al. 1969 cited by H. M. Weiss, 2002) that do not capture affect well.

Faces scale of job satisfaction (Kunin, 1955) focuses on feelings about the job and emotional experiences rather than descriptions of the job and evaluations; thus, targeting a measure of affect. While the researcher agrees that the measure targets an area valid for happiness at work, the measure was created over half a century ago, and presents options of faces which are arguably insufficiently expressive for our day and age of emojis; thus, limiting the participant’s expression of their emotions, as found by the researcher in the pilot study. Emojis can be introduced to the scale; however, this leads to the additional difficulty of assessment of meaning to emojis which are found not to be standardized (H. Miller et al., 2016).

Brief (1998) called for research on a new job satisfaction measure, and unlike the other measures, the Brief Index of Job Satisfaction (Thompson and Phua 2012) is overtly focus on affective aspect of commitment, and minimally to cognitive, if at all. This relatively new measure is validated for internal consistency reliability, temporal stability, convergent and criterion-related validities, cross population invariance by nationality, job level and job type, and is arguably most suitable for this research. However, communications with Prof. C. Fisher (personal communication, 30 May, 2018) highlighted the fact that consensus remains that job-satisfaction is a mix of cognitive and affective measure despite its definition, and it was suggested that it must be treated as so, Fisher (2014) confirms the cognitive aspect to be a valid part of happiness at work. Hence this latest measure is considered not ready for use until the definition of job satisfaction evolves or is modified to include only affective aspect of an individual.

It is noted that the Job in General Scale (Appendix 13.2.2.1), described as: “gauge an overall evaluative or affective judgment about one’s job” (S. S. Russell et al., 2004, p. 879) is essentially an affective measure, but due to its overall evaluation nature, cognitive aspect of the evaluation will also influence the measure. It is noted that the Job in General Scale is recommended to be used in collaboration with Job Descriptive Index (Ironson et al., 1989), which tests different facets within the job satisfaction construct, namely: work, pay, promotion opportunities, supervision, and people at work. Nonetheless, since the different facets of job-satisfaction are not of primary interest to the study, it was concluded for this research to use Job in General Scale (Prof. C. Fisher personal communication, June 11, 2018). The abbreviated validated version of the scale was used as it ensures validity while decreasing the time taken for completion of the questionnaire (S. S. Russell et al., 2004). This decision is supported by the fact that job satisfaction is proven to be composed of both cognitions about the job and affect at work. However, findings from basic and applied attitude research conducted suggest that the extent to which job satisfaction is based on affective or cognitive information is contingent on individual differences, in particular to the need for affect to the individual (Schlett and Ziegler 2014).

Stability of the measure overtime was important to assess the time-frame for this research. Job satisfaction is found to be modestly stable over two, three and five year periods (Staw and Ross 1985), even where employment or occupation is changed. Part of this stability may arise genetically, and the other is said to be contributed proximally from personality traits and self-evaluations (Arvey, Bouchard, Segal, & Abraham, 1989; Judge, Heller, & Klinger, 2008). Staw and Ross (1985, p. 478) compared stability of job satisfaction with that of locus of control to prove that it is: “at least as stable over time as one of the most widely used personality measures” providing confidence of stability of two constructs included in this research.

4.1.2.2 Organizational Commitment

Haughey (1997) argues that commitment to an organization can range from commitment to customers, employees, to investors, or to the organization, exhibited as loyalty, which is critical to value creation;

thus, an important source of growth, profits, and competitive advantage achieved through a people-centric strategy, which can pose a barrier to entry by an existing competitor to erode the competitive advantage (Barney, 1991).

As the name suggests, organizational commitment is an assessment of the ‘stickiness’ of employees to an organization. Porter et al. (1974) defines commitment in terms of the overall strength of an employee’s identification with and involvement in an organization. However, a host of reasons can exist for commitment to an organization, ranging from: culture of loyalty, fear of change, lack of alternatives, geographic or political reasons, or others. It must be noted that these may not always be based on affect; thus, unrelated to happiness at work (Brierley, 1996). This makes it important for this research to identify the category within organizational commitment that best relates to happiness at work. As such, few categorizations available from scholars are discussed below:

O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) propose commitment categories of: compliance, identification and internalization. Compliance embraces instrumental behaviour to gain reward, such as behaviour aimed at achieving an employee’s performance measures (e.g. key performance indicators as set by the organization) to ensure bonuses, pay increases or promotions. Identification occurs when an employee wants to be associated with the organization due to its image and an ability to identify with it. Internalization reflects a scenario where the employee’s values or goals aligned with the organization’s goals that lead commitment to stay with the organization.

Mowday et al. (1982) categorized commitment into two perspectives: attitudinal and behavioural. Alignment of organizational goals with the employees’ personal goals that promotes willingness for hard work towards the goal, and level of desire to stay within the organization is the view of attitudinal commitment. Behavioural commitment, on the contrary, relates to the process by which the employee becomes locked into the organization, defined as: “...an employee’s intention to stay with an organization” (Price, 1997, p. 104).

Meyer and Allen (2016) divided the construct into three components: affective, continuance and normative, concisely summarized as commitment to the organization driven by: desire, need, or obligation respectively. This provides a wider definition than Porter (1974), whose definition embraces the affective component of commitment only. The components of the construct of commitment are discussed below:

- Affective commitment: relates to the employee’s perspective of their relationship with the organization, argued to be determined by psychological state of the employee, relating to emotional attachment to the organization. Mowday et al. (1982) categorize the antecedents of the component into the four categories: personal characteristics, structural characteristics, job related characteristics, and subjective work experiences. The last two have been blurred due to common use of self-reported measures; as such, a consolidated ‘work experiences’ category is proposed by Meyer and Allen (2016):

- Personal characteristics: ranging from demographics to personal dispositional characteristics have been researched. While insignificant correlations are found to exist with demographics (Mottaz, 1988), personal dispositional needs, such as: achievement, affiliation and autonomy, have proven to be correlated to affective commitment (Steers, 1977). Luthans et al. (1987) study uncovered that attributional processes, such as locus of control, correlate to organizational commitment and leadership behaviour. As such, this research anticipated a relationship between locus of control and affective commitment.
- Structural characteristics: of an organization, such as decentralization of decision making (Brooke, Russell, & Price, 1988), and policies and procedures in an organization (O'Driscoll, 1987) bear a relationship with affective commitment. As such, this research anticipated a relationship between locus of control and position of the department on the organizational lifecycle.
- Work experiences: assist to develop commitment to an organization, where there is fundamental compatibility between the employee and the organization's values. Herzberg (1966) categorizes the work experiences into: hygiene and motivator, where the earlier refers to comfortable work environment (physically and psychologically), and the latter refers to encouragement and appraisal of competence.
- Continuance commitment: is led by one's financial value (Oles and Hermans 2010). It is a calculated decision to continue with the organization for reasons such as: loss of income, cost of moving, or for lack of better alternatives available. The decision is driven by financial obligations and an assessment of benchmarked self-worth in the market.
- Normative commitment: arise from an obligation an employee may feel to remain with the organization. This may be financial, where the employee has a stake in the organization, but more commonly a result of social, cultural or organizational loyalty norms (Boyd and Richerson 2009).

Attitudinal commitment remained the most attractive for scholars due to the ambiguity of desire compared to the clarity of continuance commitment driven through need, while normative commitment remains fairly unexplored to date. It must be acknowledged that studies have not shown clear convergence and validity of the categorizations (Price, 1997). In particular, normative and affective commitment do not show empirical distinction and are argued to both, in different ways, represent internalized forms of psychological attachment leading to a suggestion that they should be combined (Cohen, 2007). Nonetheless, meta-analysis of affective commitment correlated 0.60 with job satisfaction and 0.50 with job involvement (Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran 2005), which suggests a existence of a common core to the concept of happiness across these distinct constructs suggested by Fisher (2010) to be used simultaneously as a measure of happiness at work.

Mowday (1998) in reflecting on his 25 year work on organizational commitment applauded the progress in understanding of the construct and its antecedents, and encouraged research on the topic in four areas:

understanding specifics of what leads to employee commitment, bottom line implications of commitment to an organization, linking human resource systems to organizational outcomes, and exploring types of organizations and understanding types of organizations where commitment is more important than in others. This research addressed the first of the recommended areas. Further research showed empirical evidence that values congruence and work environment congruence had the strongest and most consistent effects on the organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Westerman and Cyr 2004); hence, encouraging research into the field in different work environments as conducted by this research.

Measures of organizational commitment are as varied as the categorizations. Out of the host of options, due to little evidence of systematic or comprehensive efforts to determine the stability, consistency, or predictive powers of the various instruments, Fisher (2010) recommends the two discussed below to be considered: Mowday et al.'s (1996) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire was the most significant measurement of commitment for many years, as such has been vastly validated. Additionally, it taps into level of identification with the organization, alignment with organizational goals, willingness to exert effort to achieve the goal, and desire to stay with the organization. As such, it assesses level of affective commitment; hence, suitable for this research.

Meyer et al (1993) measure of commitment (Appendix 13.2.2.2) uses six items to assess affective commitment without an assessment of the reason for the commitment. In the search for personal attachment to the organization for any reason, affective or desire to commit to an organization is closely aligned to happiness at an organization, as it represents emotional attachment. This makes it also suitable for the research. It is noted that the latter construct is founded in affect, with a question that explicitly addresses the term 'happiness'. Additionally, as confirmed that the options for response can be reduced from seven to five (Meyer and Allen 2004) led to adoption of this survey for practical reasons, in ensuring a reasonable length of the questionnaire to assist in achieving a better response rate.

4.1.2.3 Engagement

Linking to the fundamentals of happiness, engagement as a concept lies between personal survival and belonging to the group, a battle of balance, to avoid being overwhelmed or alienated (Hollis, 1998). This is seen in the organization as behaviours by which people 'bring in' or 'leave out' their personal selves during work role performances. Kahn (1990, p. 694) defined personal engagement as: "the harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances". Hence, the concept of engagement refers to the amount of authentic self that individuals devote to their work, that generates attentiveness, connection, integration and focus, which leads positive outcomes, both at the individual level (personal growth and development) as well as at the organizational level (performance quality). He states (Kahn, 1990, p. 400): "Personal engagement is the simultaneous employment and expression of a person's 'preferred self' in task... My premise is that people have dimensions of themselves that, given appropriate

conditions, they prefer to use and express in the course of role performances”. This is reflective of an employee’s ability to live their archetype and be authentic to their personality traits in the workplace (Corlett and Pearson 2003).

Engagement differs from other constructs of job satisfaction and affective job commitment being reviewed. Work engagement is different from job satisfaction in that it combines high work pleasure (dedication) with high activation (vigor, absorption); job satisfaction is typically a more passive form of employee well-being (Bakker, 2011). Research on engagement has investigated how engagement differs from related concepts such as workaholism, where engaged workers were found to lack the typical compulsive drive. Typical of addictions, workaholism endangers health, reduces happiness, and deteriorates interpersonal relations and social functioning (Bakker, Demerouti, & Burke, 2009). For those who were engaged at work, work was enjoyable, not an addiction (van Tilburg and Igou 2017); hence, workaholism and work engagement are concluded to be largely independent concepts (van Beek, Taris, & Schaufeli, 2011).

High engagement demonstrates higher psychological well-being and personal accomplishment, whereas low engagement exhibits higher emotional exhaustion and depersonalization (Shuck and Reio 2014). Bakker et al. (2009) mention four reasons why engaged workers perform better than non-engaged worker in which the authors directly attribute the relationship between engagement and happiness at work. Engaged employee were said to: often experience positive emotions, including happiness, joy, and enthusiasm; experience better psychological and physical health; create their own job and personal resources (e.g., support from others); and transfer their engagement to others. Research has revealed that engagement is a unique concept that is best predicted by job resources (e.g., autonomy, supervisory coaching, performance feedback) and personal resources (e.g., optimism, self-efficacy, self-esteem) (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008).

Kahn’s (1990) concept is developed further by two related schools of thoughts discussed below:

- Strongly linked to energy levels at work, engagement is summarized as opposite of ‘burnout’ (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1997). Burnout is defined as high levels of exhaustion and negative attitudes toward their work (cynicism) (Demerouti, Mostert, & Bakker, 2010). Three subscales emerged from the data analysis: emotional exhaustion (when employees’ emotional resources are depleted, which leads to a feeling that they are no longer able to give all of themselves at a psychological level); negative, cynical attitudes and feelings about the organization; and a negative self-evaluation, leading to unhappiness about themselves and dissatisfied with their accomplishments on the job.
- Macey and Schneider (2008, p. 24) describe engagement as “positive affect associated with the job and the work setting connoting or explicitly indicating feelings of persistence, vigor, energy, dedication, absorption, enthusiasm, alertness and pride”. Affect at work directly assesses moods

or emotions at work. It is said to work in two dimensions: hedonic and arousal, where the earlier relates more to affect and the latter to motivation and creativity (Baas, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2008). Most measures of affect follow the mood circumplex.

Measurement options are relatively fewer compared to job satisfaction and job commitment, and comprehensively discussed in literature (Wefald, Mills, Smith, & Downey, 2012).

Harter et al. (2002) presented the Gallup Work Audit, a 12-item measure of employment engagement. This scale does not measure experience of feelings but descriptively assesses presumed antecedents in workplace situation e.g. role clarity, recognition and praise, learning and relationships in the organization. These features are regarded to be salient in the face of high job demands (Bakker et al., 2008). The measure does have the benefit of being a stable, long term measure of engagement.

The first conceptualization is a measurement of engagement as low scores on the dimensions of exhaustion and cynicism, and high score in the dimension of efficacy, in the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach et al., 1997). The results are interpreted as levels of: energy, involvement and efficacy. The researcher feels that this is largely imbedded in traditional psychology, where the focus is on mental illness. Due to the nature of the questionnaire, it can be expected that greater care is needed in its execution due to the possible negativity projected by it, which can have a negative effect on the morale in the organization where research is being conducted.

Utrecht Work Enthusiasm Scale (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003) engagement follows a more positive psychology thought, hence use of it in the survey can be without much apprehension, and includes three subscales: vigor, dedication, and absorption. It is sufficiently validated, and queries happiness with work directly in the questionnaire (Appendix 13.2.2.3). The scale has been subsequently abbreviated without compromise to reliability and validity hence chosen for the study (Seppälä et al., 2009).

Each component, vigor, dedication and absorption, of the construct of engagement at work is discussed below:

4.1.2.3.1 Vigor

Investigated since Roman times, the famous politician, lawyer and philosopher, Marcus Tullius Cicero, stated that it is exercise alone that keeps our mind in vigor (Henig, 2005). In recent academic literature, Shirom (2003) with his work on vigour at work elaborates on the definition of engagement by defining vigour as positive affective experience involving energetic resources including: feelings of physical strength, emotional energy in aspects at work including others, and cognitive liveliness or alertness. These three types of energetic resources, while individually owned, are closely interrelated. With its fundamental in Conservation of Resources Theory, which argues that personal resources affect each other and exist as a resource pool, and that an expansion of one is often associated with the other being augmented as well, vigor forms the activation element of engagement, ranging from exhaustion or sleepiness to vigor

(Demerouti et al., 2010). “Vigor is characterized by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working” (Bakker and Demerouti 2008, p.210) “the willingness to invest effort in one’s work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties” (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gon Alez-ro, & Bakker, 2002, p. 74).

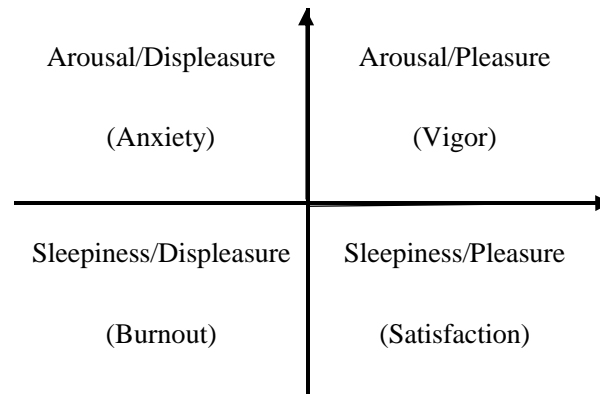


FIGURE 5: QUADRANTS FOR AROUSAL V SLEEPINESS PLOTTED AGAINST DISPLEASURE TO PLEASURE (RUSSEL 2003)

Each affective state is differentiated by where it lies on the two-dimensional space that consists of the horizontal dimension of pleasure against displeasure, and of the vertical dimension of arousal against sleepiness (J. A. Russell, 2003) (Figure 5). In this two-dimensional space, vigor represents positive arousal or a combination of moderate amounts of arousal and pleasure. Vigor’s counterpart in the quadrant of displeasure-arousal is anxiety, and burnout (Shirom, 2006).

Similar to happiness, vigor is dictated to a great extent by genetic predisposition and personality trait. Vigor at work represents “a positive affective response to one’s ongoing interactions with significant elements in one’s job and work environment that comprises the interconnected feelings of physical strength, emotional energy, and cognitive liveliness” (Shirom, 2006, p. 90). As such, antecedents of vigor at work include: participation in decision making, intrinsic or extrinsic rewards, supervisor’s leadership style, support from colleagues or cohesion, autonomy and control over resources.

4.1.2.3.2 *Dedication*

As stated earlier, engagement is defined as high activation and high identification with the organization. While the activation element of engagement is represented by level of vigor discussed above, identification with an organization ranges from cynicism to dedication (Demerouti et al., 2010). “Dedication refers to being strongly involved in one’s work and experiencing a sense of significance, enthusiasm, and challenge” (Bakker and Demerouti 2008, p.210)

Job dedication, which includes self-disciplined, motivated acts such as: following rules, working hard, taking initiative, and following rules to support organizational objectives (Van Scotter and Motowidlo 1996). Dedication is defined as: “the motivational foundation for job performance that drives people to act with the deliberate intention of promoting the organization's best interests” (Van Scotter and

Motowidlo 1996, p.526), including: conscientiousness, generalized expectancy of task success, and goal orientation.

Items measuring job dedication illustrated effort, persistence, and self-discipline. Job resources lead to dedication and extra-role performance (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007). These job resources, in turn, encourage personal investment in the work and are seen as a recipe for success.

4.1.2.3.3 *Absorption*

Work engagement is seen as the opposite of burnout which includes reduced professional efficacy. Engagement includes the opposite of such, which is absorption. “Absorption is characterized by being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one’s work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work” (Bakker and Demerouti 2008, p.210).

A specific example of absorption at work is experienced as flow. It is experienced at times when focus peaks, and the employee is immersed in the task (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi 2000). Flow is a very enjoyable state, having been described as a peak experience of exhilarating and euphoria.

Csikszentmihalyi (1990) confirms that flow may not be pleasant at the time it occurs; nonetheless, regarded as an optimal experience, providing a feel and sense of exhilaration, a deep sense of enjoyment that is long cherished, which does not come through passive, receptive, relaxing times, but optimal experiences occur when our physical or mental limits are stretched from a voluntary effort to accomplish something difficult and worthwhile.

A wide variety of activities can lead to flow, subject to the interests of the individual, which were shown to be non-related to culture, stage of modernization, social class, age, or gender. Csikszentmihalyi (1990) suggested major components of flow: completion of a task where there is a clear goal, which is seen to be attainable, there is control, and fast feedback, an ability to concentrate, allowing for deep, but effortless involvement (similar to mindfulness (Jones, 2018) or meditation (Prelipcean, 2013)) leading to a concern for the self ‘disappearing’, yet, paradoxically the sense of self emerging stronger after the flow experience is over; and the sense of duration of time is altered.

4.1.3 Causes of Happiness at Work

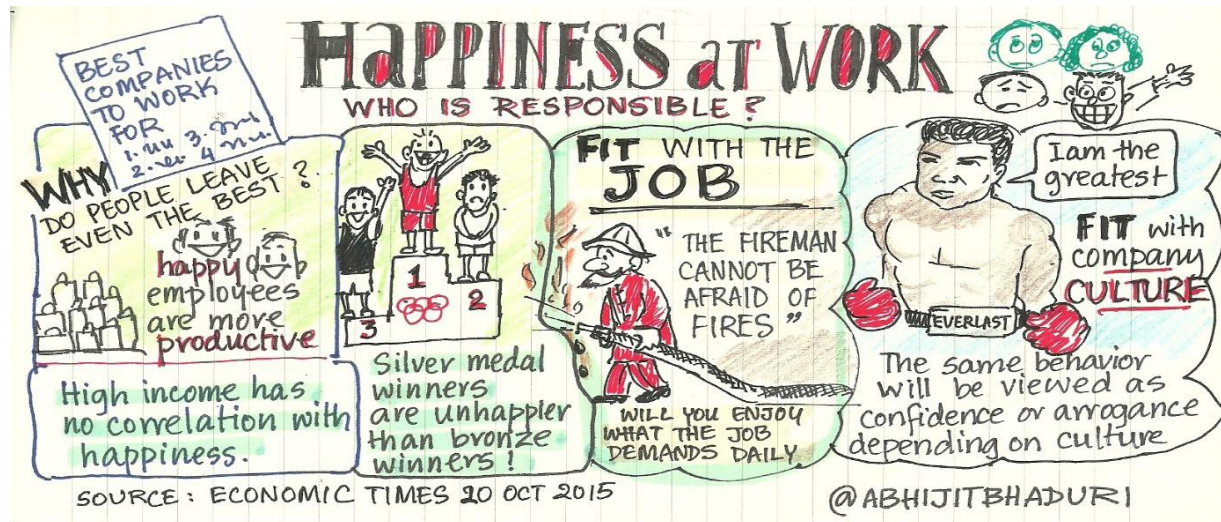


FIGURE 6: CARTOON SHOWING ANTECEDENTS OF HAPPINESS AT WORK

In reviewing dispositional factors to happiness in organizations, the contribution comprises of: genetic predisposition (A. Weiss et al., 2008), and personality (Judge, Thoresen, Pucik, & Welbourne, 1999). Arvey et al.'s (1989) research on monozygotic or identical twins revealed that approximately 30% of the observed variance in general job satisfaction was due to genetic factors.

Several of personality traits have been found to predict job satisfaction through affectivity (Connolly and Viswesvaran 2000; Thoresen et al. 2003; Watson and Slack 1993; Bretz and Judge 1994), defined as self-rated cheerfulness (Diener, Nickerson, Lucas, & Sandvik, 2002). For example, research with the big five personality traits (Judge et al., 2002) concluding a 0.41 multiple correlation: negative correlation between neuroticism (-0.29) and job satisfaction, and positive correlation between extraversion (+0.25) and job satisfaction in a generalized across study. Judge et al. (2001) concluded positive correlation between self-efficacy (+0.45) and job satisfaction. Similarly, (Judge and Bono 2001) in a meta-analysis of self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability (opposite of neuroticism), which they categorize as core self-evaluation traits, with job satisfaction show positive correlations of 0.26, 0.45, 0.32 and 0.24 respectively. While concluding significant predictability of the core self-evaluations (positive self-concept consisting of four traits: self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability (low neuroticism)) and job satisfaction, further research is endorsed by the scholars regarding the traits and the processes by which they affect these outcomes. In light of the correlations of the traits with satisfaction, and the high correlations among the traits, future research considering these traits is stated as warranted by the researchers (Judge et al., 2008).

While Judge and Bono (2001) concluded that self-esteem, locus of control, neuroticism, and generalized self-efficacy are significant predictors of both job satisfaction, it was also concluded a significant correlation exists between locus of control and job satisfaction (+0.32). Since the linear relationship between locus of control and subjective well-being is challenged, with significant correlation only at

optimal point (balanced locus of control) (April et al., 2012), the relationship between locus of control and collective constructs that represent happiness at work (Fisher, 2010) can be re-examined for a correlation. There is much to be known about the exact nature of the traits (whether or not they are indicators of the broader personality trait) and the processes by which they affect these outcomes. In light of the similar correlations of the traits with satisfaction and performance observed here, and the high correlations among the traits, future research considering these traits together is warranted.

Work Adjustment Theory (Bretz and Judge 1994) concludes that the work situation must meet the employee preference to allow for happiness at work. Kristof (1996, pp. 4–5) defined this fit as: “the compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when: (a) at least one entity provides what the other needs, or (b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or (c) both”. This definition focuses on fit of the person with the whole organization in addition to a specific job, vocation, or group (Verquer et al., 2003).

Dominant causes of happiness at work include: attributes of the organization (e.g. organization culture, human resource practices), the job (e.g. pay, stability, complexity, challenge, interest level (Hackman and Oldham 1975; Morgeson and Humphrey 2006; Warr 2007), the supervisor (e.g. trust levels, respect and fairness (Dirks and Ferrin 2002), or other aspects of work environment (relationships with other people (Dutton and Ragins 2007; Dutton 2003)). Research assessment of influence of feelings in organizations shows sharing positive experiences with others reinforces happiness. The amplification is more intense when the people who hear the positive communication respond authentically. Myers (2000) notes that when employees are happy, we are readier to help others, thus contributing to the organizational harmony, learning and performance.

The 11 categorized work factors that were considered to represent the content of job satisfaction by Saane et al. (2003) are noted below:

1. workload (time pressure subjectively perceived, tedium, social problems, interpersonal conflict, or stress);
2. supervision (support of supervisor, recognition of supervisor, or being treated with fairness)
3. growth/development (personal growth and development, training, or education);
4. co-workers (professional relations with co-workers, or adequacy of co-workers);
5. promotion (possibility of career advancement, or job level);
6. financial rewards (salary, fringe benefits, or employee benefits);
7. work content (variety in skills, complexity of a job, or the challenge in a job, role ambiguity, routine);
8. autonomy (individual responsibility for work, control over job decisions);
9. communication (counselling opportunities, feedback);
10. meaningfulness;

11. work demands (involuntarily doing extra work or procedures, structural complexity, insecurity of work situation, or emotional commitment).

In a different subject context, when referring to a consumer products firm, Chapman (2005) identify reasons that predict product success as follows: workload or life balance, senior leadership, compensation, challenge/achievement, and the work environment.

Demographic variables play a relatively minor role in the development of organizational commitment (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnysky, 2002), but personal characteristics, job characteristics, and work experiences influenced commitment (Steers, 1977). Work experiences were found to have much stronger relation with affective commitment (Meyer et al., 2002). These findings support the argument that organizational focus on recruitment criteria that favours those predisposed to being affectively committed will not be as effective as managing their experiences once recruited in the organization.

The research on antecedents of engagement show correlation with a host of job resources. Job resources refer to those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that: reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, be functional in achieving work goals, and stimulate personal growth, learning, and development (Bakker and Demerouti 2007). The correlations are noted with: supervisor support, coaching, social support, utilization of variety of skill-set of the employee, autonomy, learning, job control, innovative climate, clear and frequent feedback processes and rewards and recognition (Halbesleben, 2006).

In reference to burnout as the opposite of engagement, six areas of work-life that encompass the central relationships with burnout are as follows: workload, control, reward, community, fairness, and values. Burnout was found to arise from chronic mismatches between people and their work setting in terms of some or all of these six areas. A mismatch in workload is generally found as excessive overload, through the simple formula that too many demands exhaust an individual's energy to the extent that recovery becomes impossible. A workload mismatch may also result from the wrong kind of work, as when people lack the skills or inclination for a certain type of work, even when it is required in reasonable quantities (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001).

4.2 Control

Control is defined by the dictionary as one's ability to influence consequence or course of events, or direct people's behaviour (Oxford University Press, 2005). While the concept is debated for its definition (Langlois, 2002), it is the general consensus that individuals desire a degree of control over their lives and their environment. So much so, that Alfred Adler (cited by Burrow, 1917) regarded control to be an intrinsic necessity of life itself. Hence, we see the dummy buttons for pelican crossings and door closing in elevators, as it allows individuals the perception of control which alters feelings, reactions and behaviour (BBC Crew, 2016).

Traditional scholars like Seligman (1975) indicate that control is exercised when an outcome is more likely to occur as a response to a behaviour. For example, if an individual is persecuted based on a particular action, then the person regards the persecution as controllable. However, if repercussions are randomly administered, or perceived to be random, then the individual regards it not to be controllable. Hence, control is exercised due to perceived prediction.

It is important to note that control is also seen to be exercised without a predicted outcome (Nickels, Cramer, & Gural, 1992). ‘Predictionless control’ is evident in life, where an individual may not know the outcome, but attempts to exercise control; thus, exhibiting a generalized expectancy for a reaction to an action taken. While it is difficult to see how one could convince people that they are controlling unpredictable outcomes, the illusion of control is said to arise from a higher belief of controllability, or perceived control (Langer, 1975). Studies support the notion that this perception is learnt behaviour during childhood (Bandura, 1978), which is subsequently embodied in oneself as a personality trait (Seligman, 1972). The trait is termed ‘locus of control’ (Rotter, 1966).

4.2.1 Locus of Control

Locus of control (Rotter, 1966) is a personality construct that reflects one’s belief or perception about who controls life and the environment (Lefcourt, 1976b). Rotter (1966) used the empirical ‘law of effect’ (Boring, 1933) which states that people are inherently motivated to seek positive stimulation, or reinforcement, and to avoid unpleasant stimulation. On this basis, Lefcourt (1976b) generated a predictive formula where he defined ‘behaviour potential’ (the likelihood of engaging in a particular behaviour) as a function of expectancy (the probability that a given behaviour will lead to a particular outcome) and reinforcement (outcomes of our behaviours). Lefcourt (1976b) used Skinner’s (Lejeune, Richelle, & Wearden, 2006) concept of ‘reinforcement’ which stated that if the outcomes of responses by an individual are unfavourable, then the likelihood of the operant to use the response in the future is decreased. In the context of locus of control, a reinforcement experienced, leads to an expectation of the outcome for the future (Rotter, 1966). The person learns to discriminate behaviours and outcomes, and generalizes beliefs for the future. This generalization of expectancies of control of reinforcement defines and formulates one’s locus of control (Marks, 1998).

Perceived control in psychology is a “person's belief that he or she is capable of obtaining desired outcomes, avoiding undesired outcomes, and achieving goals” (Landau, Kay, & Whitson, 2015, p. 695). This belief can exist at varying levels, reflecting the degree to which one perceives personal control in life (S. Connolly, 1980). Locus of control has been described as a dimension with two opposing differentiates (Lee-Kelley, 2006). The dimensions reflect the extent to which individuals believe that what happens to them is within their control (internal) or beyond it (external) (Carrim, 2006). This presents a continuum of internal-external belief system (Littunen and Storhammar 2000) that is measured using Rotter’s (1966)

Internal-External (I-E) Scale, subsequently abbreviated without compromising its reliability, validity and rigor (Valecha and Ostrom 1974).

All theories of personality are built on assumptions. Linearity of human nature is one of the basic assumptions to build a theory. Two polar dimensions identified by the theorists, and are assumed to have a linear continuum from one pole to the other (Hjelle and Ziegler 1976). Similar is true of the Rotter's Internal External (I-E) Scale (Rotter, 1966), where the two poles are defined as internal expectancy and external expectancy, and a linear scale is said to join the two (Schjoedt and Shaver 2012).

In addition to internal and external locus of control expectancy, the concept of dual control, or “shared responsibility”, is described as a balance of externality and internality. Individuals who believe in both internal and external forces control their lives and the environmental are labelled as bi-locals (Torun and April 2006). The move from a lack of a term for the expectancy to it being termed ‘bi-local’ provided a view that in addition to internality and externality, claiming that there exists a profound position in the middle of the spectrum with specific traits associated with the position. Bi-locals were subsequently termed as having a ‘balanced locus of control’ expectancy by April et al. (2012), as a complement to the position on the spectrum that allowed for maximising subjective well-being (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999). Hence, challenging the concept that internality may be optimal for significant aspects of life, as suggested by majority of scholars in the West (Sprung & Jex, 2012).

Phares (1976) regarded the I-E scale to be a ‘rough measure’, and that researchers should develop domain-specific measures. Numerous studies have shown that Rotter (1966) scale is multi-dimensional in nature (Boone and de Brabander 1997; Cherlin and Bourque 1974). This has led to several measures of situation specific locus of control that explore the generalized expectancy in a specific situation (Ng, Sorensen, & Eby, 2006). In social learning theory (Bandura, 1978), two types of expectancies are distinguished: situation specific and generalized. For example. Spector's work locus of control (Spector, 1988), or health locus of control (Wallston, Strudler Wallston, & DeVellis, 1978) are a situation specific measure of in the work environment, or in respect of an individual's health respectively. As such this does not render the multi-dimensional scale, grounded in social learning theory (Bandura, 1978), as meaningless. Wang et al. (2010) explains locus of control as a hierarchical construct, with general locus of control existing at the highest level within this hierarchy, and several context-specific sub-dimensions, such as work locus of control, health locus of control, marital locus of control, and parental locus of control to name a few, exist at lower levels of the hierarchy.

As such, Rotter's (1966) research is matured, and the I-E scale continues to be used (Lee-Kelley, 2006). Klockars and Varnum (1975) examined the I-E scale to conclude validity of 11 out of the 23 questions as directly opposing options. Adeyemi-Bello's (2001) study concluded that 23 items were too many for the construct. Thus, the abbreviated Rotter's (1966) scale is vastly popular (Appendix 13.2.1).

While the scale has been extensively examined in entrepreneurship research, it has produced mixed results. This may be due to measurement issues, such as the widespread use of a general locus of control scale, which is not domain specific (Schjoedt and Shaver 2012). It is for this reason why an entrepreneurial specific scale was used for their study. However, since this research proposes study across the lifecycle of an organization, the scale cannot be used for the research. Spector (1988), after introducing the work locus of control scale, confirmed significant correlations with job satisfaction, intention of quitting, perceived influence at work, role stress, and perceptions of supervisory style.

Nonetheless, organizational studies have been dominated by the use of Rotter's (1966) I-E scale of general locus of control, despite the existence of the Spector's (1988), reliable and validated work locus of control (Macan, Trusty, & Trimble, 1996) and empirical evidence of its correlations (Ng et al., 2006). The work locus of control generally yielded stronger relationships with work-related criteria (e.g., job satisfaction, affective commitment, and burnout) than general locus of control (Q. Wang et al., 2010). The measure was found to correlate significantly with job satisfaction, intention of quitting, perceived influence at work, role stress and perceptions of supervisory style (Spector, 1988); hence, is suitable for the proposed research. However, due to the pre-existing correlations available with constructs of happiness with the general locus of control expectancy (April et al., 2012), it was chosen for use for this research to ensure correlations are captured where existing.

4.2.2 Locus of Control and Happiness

Fantasy and blaming powerful others are attitudes more consistent with individuals with an external locus of control, which also indicates a tendency for low subjective well-being (Diener, Suh, & Oishi, 1997). The absence of control, or a perception of absence of control, increases the likelihood of learned helplessness (Seligman, 1972) and general physical illness (Peterson et al., 1993; Seligman, 1975). External locus of control has a positive correlation with higher levels of psychological distress (Holder and Levi 1988), vulnerability to depression (Ganellen and Blaney 1984), and poorer responsiveness to antidepressants (Reynaert, Janne, Vause, Zdanowicz, & Lejeune, 1995). Furthermore, Marks (1998) states that countries that foster a high perception of external control also fostered higher rates of suicide.

In reference to the correlations of externality and unhappiness constructs, Pannells et al. (2008) reported significant difference on the happiness measure was found for those individuals with internal locus of control versus those with external locus of control. Similar was reported in a study conducted on students (David and Singh 2016). A relationship through self-control was also concluded, where internals were found to have greater self-control, and greater self-control was significantly correlated with Oxford Happiness inventory (Ramezani and Gholtash 2015). Subtly different, internals were found to appreciate freedom of choice more than externals, and therefore to be happier (Verme, 2009). This hints towards the fact that externals are possibly happier in a situation where there are fewer options. This introduces the

possibility of different needs of the two polar extremes of the scale of locus of control to allow for happiness.

Subjective well-being is a field of psychology that aims at understanding people's evaluations of their lives (Diener et al., 1999) and its scales are a popular academic measure of happiness. These evaluations can be cognitive (generalized life satisfaction) or may consist of the frequency with people experience positive or negative emotions (Diener et al., 1997).

The relationship between cognitive, long-term subjective well-being and locus of control has been investigated using Diener et al.'s 'Satisfaction with Life Scale' (Diener et al., 1985). April et al. (2012) concluded optimal well-being for individuals with a balanced locus of control, highlighting the shortcomings of internals that lead to lower levels of subjective well-being, including: such as assuming too much responsibility and lacking trust in others (April et al., 2011). People in individualistic states (i.e. Western cultures), that place more emphasis on internality and independence (Marks, 1998), make more attribution for events internally to themselves; therefore, experience amplified effects when things go wrong or right. This indicates sensitivity of internals on the subjective well-being scale.

While the consensus remains with internality to be associated with happiness in general, and there are clinical studies associating externality with unhappiness and depression; nonetheless, the review on the subject highlights that different aspects of an environment can lead to difference in happiness for internals and externals (Verme, 2009). As such, it is reviewed as not as a 'one fit all' scenario, despite the consensus. Additionally, the introduction of a balanced locus of control expectancy as optimizing subjective well-being challenges this consensus.

4.2.3 Locus of Control and Happiness at Work

In exploring the antecedents of happiness at work, it is important to note that dispositional contributors are regarded as most stable predictors of constructs forming happiness at work. These dispositional contributors are: genetic predisposition (A. Weiss et al., 2008) and personality traits (Judge et al., 2002). Several constructs of happiness have found genetics to be the main driver of where an individual is on the scale (Arvey et al., 1989). For example, Lyubomirsky, Sheldon, and Schkade (2005) constructed the happiness formula which regards genetic disposition, environmental factors and voluntary activities as determining the level of happiness of an individual. A biological set point primarily determines one's level of happiness, while circumstantial influences were found to account for up to only a 15% contribution (Ricard and Browner 2007). Similarly, 50% variance in Subjective Well Being scale (Diener et al., 1999) were found to be genetically determined (Arvey et al., 1989; Lykken, 2007; A. Weiss et al., 2008). The concept is based on the theory that happy people are more likely to experience events that they consider desirable, and also have a tendency to perceive 'neutral' events as positive (Seidlitz and Diener 1993).

Similarly, 30% of the variance in overall job satisfaction were found to be genetically dictated in Arvey et al.'s (1989) study of identical twins. While stability in job satisfaction may also be accounted for distally by genes, but more proximally by personality traits and self-evaluations (Judge et al., 2008). Since the publication of researches by Staw and Rodd (1985), the dispositional source of job satisfaction has become an important research topic. One of the criticisms of his literature is that it has not provided much clarity in terms of which traits would prove most fruitful (Brief, 1998). Hence, the providing consent for research of the construct against personality traits.

The World Economic Forum (Bradberry, 2017) quoted an international study that surveyed more than 500 leaders about the basis of choosing employees. A preference from leaders based on employee's personality ranked highest, with 78% stating it to be what sets an employee apart. It was considered to be more important than culture-fit (53%) or skill-set (39%). Hence, the importance of personality type to commerce cannot be underestimated, making it a crucial subject for business management.

Major personality traits when examined with one of the constructs of happiness at work, job satisfaction, conclude a significant correlation at a meta-analysis level (Judge and Bono 2001). The researchers warrant further delving in the area of research with focus on exploring areas which lead to the correlation. The high correlation amongst the personality traits themselves do not warrant the need for a 'bumper' combination of traits for future studies (Judge and Bono 2001); thus, suggesting that focusing on a construct as an acceptable approach in pursuing greater depth of understanding.

Ng et al. (2006) hypothesized an internal locus of control to be positively related to global facets of job satisfaction, including: pay, promotion, supervisor, and co-workers. Furthermore, internal locus of control was related to variables reflecting commitment, including: affective organizational commitment, hours worked, company-record attendance, and turnover. Their research potentially correlates with the constructs in this research; however, it is noted that their research is more focused on cognitive measures than affect.

Examining the relations between work locus of control and two different forms of organizational commitments, affective and continuance, discovered that internality was associated with affective commitment and externality with higher levels of continuance commitment (Coleman, Irving, & Cooper, 1999). Similarly, when investigating commitment to change in an organization, internal locus of control were more likely to have high affective and normative commitment to change, whereas participants with more external locus of control were more likely to have high continuance commitment to change (Chen and Wang 2007). High levels of continuance commitment have been found to be related to lower levels of performance and organizational citizenship behaviour (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, & Goffin, 1989); hence, it can be argued that externals being more committed for continuance would be less happiness at work.

Semmer (1996) argued that low levels of hardiness, poor self-esteem, an external locus of control, and an avoidant coping style typically constitute the profile of a stress-prone individual. The results from the burnout research (Maslach et al., 2001) confirm this personality profile. Since engagement is viewed as opposite of burnout, it can be concluded that empirical evidence exists for a positive relationship between internality and engagement. The concept must be viewed with a pinch of salt as burnout and engagement as opposite ends of the same coin is challenged by the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003), and subsequent correlations attempting to prove burnout and engagement (MBI and UWES) have concluded to be elusive (Leiter and Maslach 2017).

Examining locus of control and job satisfaction, Spector (1982) suggested that individuals with an internal locus of control should be more satisfied in their jobs because they are less likely to stay in a dissatisfying job and are more likely to be successful in organizations. Judge et al (2001) reported a significant correlation of job satisfaction with internal locus of control expectancy in a meta-analysis study.

In reviewing more specific studies of locus of control and job satisfaction, it is noted that significant correlations are frequently reported. For example, jobs which are highly demanding and low in autonomy are found to result in greater job dissatisfaction for externals than for internals (Parkes 1991; Rothmann and Agathagelou 2000; Spector 1986). When stress levels are high within a job situation, individuals who have an external locus of control tend to experience job dissatisfaction (Näswall et al., 2005). Rahim and Psenicka (1996) found that individuals with an external locus of control were unable to handle the pressure, uncertainty and challenges of a demanding working environment. Research respondents a study in Taiwan accounting firm reported that those who had an internal locus of control perceived lower levels of job stress, reported higher levels of job satisfaction and job performance (Chen and Silverthorne 2008b). Externals had low work satisfaction scores (especially with regard to organizational processes, personal relationships and organizational design and structure), and higher occupational stress scores (on the subscales managerial role, career and achievement, and organizational climate) in Kirkcaldy et al.'s (1993) study.

Job in general scale (S. S. Russell et al., 2004), a validated measure of generalized job satisfaction, is proven to have 0.68 correlation with intention to leave. Additionally, organizational commitment is a measure of job continuance. Findings of locus of control and job turnover (Ahn, 2015) which revealed internality to lead to significantly higher job to job transition and annual wage growth presents a possible inverse relationship between job-satisfaction and internality. However, locus of control and job to non-employment turnover was found to be significant.

In conclusion of the review of the association of locus of control with happiness at work, scholars agree that internality is associated with a variety of positive outcomes in the work environment. The researcher agrees that the personality trait of locus of control provides a useful theoretical perspective to enhance our explanation and prediction of employees' workplace attitudes and behaviour (Ng, Eby, Sorensen, &

Feldman, 2005). Nonetheless, this research's argument that the work environment dictates the suitability of locus of control expectancy of an employee remains largely untested in academia till now. In a discussion about autonomy and union as two opposite drives for humans, an environment of autonomy allows for internals to be happy at work (Morling & Fiske, 1999). Similarly, in a discussion about autonomy and union as two opposite drives for humans, an environment of inter-dependence (union) was concluded to allow for externals to be happy at work (Morling & Fiske, 1999).

4.3 Organizational Characteristics

Interactional psychology assumes that continuous interaction between the person and the environment causes behaviour (Terborg, 1981), and regards behaviour as a function of the person and the environment. The entire field of psychological includes the influence of the social environment based on the person's subjective experience (Morling and Fiske 1999). Literature on person-organization fit fundamentally draws on interactional psychology perspective in which aspects of both individual and situation combine to influence an individual's response to a given situation (O'Reilly and Chatman 1986; Chatman 1989); for example, how aspects of individual values affect the individuals' attitudinal and behavioural responses to performance indicators and targets.

Jobs in different departments in a firm may vary greatly, and emphasis on "measurement of job characteristics... require... moving beyond crude occupational surrogates to measures which actually reflect the characteristics of a particular job as it is structured in a particular organizational setting" is recommended (Lofquist and Dawis 1969, p.394). O'Reilly (1991) argues that previous research has generally failed to describe people and situations in a comprehensive manner along commensurate and relevant dimensions. This failure has hindered the development and empirical assessment of coherent theories of person-situation interaction.

The researcher regards an approach of categorizing many aspects of organizational characteristics to be an overwhelming task, with additional challenge to rightly choosing certain characteristics over others, a subjective approach in categorizing them together, and most difficult to find these categories in a test scenario. Additionally, such an approach is also destined to attract criticism from scholars for lack of comprehensiveness, and to be too theoretical an approach, as such an environment may not exist in real life. A more practical approach can be taken from existing typical characteristics of organizations that are identified in theory of organizational development. Originally based on group dynamics, and practice related to generating planned change, the theory of organizational development theorizes changes in organizations – “a new state of things different from the old” (French and Bell 1995, p.3). These theories categorize organizations in their state of development, where at each stage the organization exhibits typical characteristics; hence, allowing an opportunity to classify organizations based on a wide, organic, and naturally existing combination of characteristics for the research.

4.3.1 Organizational Lifecycle

Researched for decades, there is consensus that organizational development typically follows a set path (Adizes 1979; Greiner 1998; Shaver and Scott 1991; Quinn and Cameron 1983; Miller and Friesen 1984). While prevalence of similar characteristics are proven at any stage, and inter-stage differences are made evident; it must be noted that the sequence of the stages is not always followed (Miller and Friesen 1984), indicating the ability for development and regression along the stages in each model or progress up it. Additionally, Adizes (1996) also identifies traps that may hinder the development of an organization along the business lifecycle, with the risk of the organization getting stuck at a stage. The traps may even result in death of the organization.

Quinn and Cameron (1983), based on literature of nine different theories of organizational lifecycle models, developed a summary models incorporating overlapping aspects of the different models. It is a four-stage model starting with the business idea in the 'entrepreneurial stage'. It is a stage of birth of lots of ideas; visions are conceived and fantasies are born. Subsequent to the generation of ideas, a high level of commitment is still needed to develop a sense of mission for the entrepreneur.

This pushes the organization into the 'collectivity stage', where long hours are spent to innovate using an informal communication and structure system within the organization to launch the business and undertake the risk of setting-up an organization. This stage demands formation of a niche, and marshalling of resources. There may be little planning and coordination; however, entrepreneurial activities thrive as resources are collected, and a niche market is targeted which allows for development of a commitment towards the business idea.

Once operational, the formalization of rules and constructs stable structures within the organization that establishes processes. The 'formalisation and control stage' marks a step towards conservatism and institutionalization which can lead to risk averseness and lower creativity and innovation within the organization.

Further development of the organizational rules and control system pushes the organization into the 'structural elaboration stage'. Elaboration of structures allows for concrete control systems, and ensure specialization of staff. Attempts to avoid diseconomies of scale may entail decentralization, and domain expansion to allow for adaptation and renewal of the organization to encourage growth for the organization that may have been hindered due to risk averseness and lack of innovation (Quinn and Cameron 1983).

Quinn and Cameron (1983) state that at the time of their research, none of the other nine theories of business lifecycle elaborate on the aging process in an organization except Adizes (1979). It is for this reason that their summary theory does not elaborate on the aging process either. Furthermore, Quinn and Cameron (1983) acknowledge that empirical research has not been forthcoming to validate various models of lifecycle development.

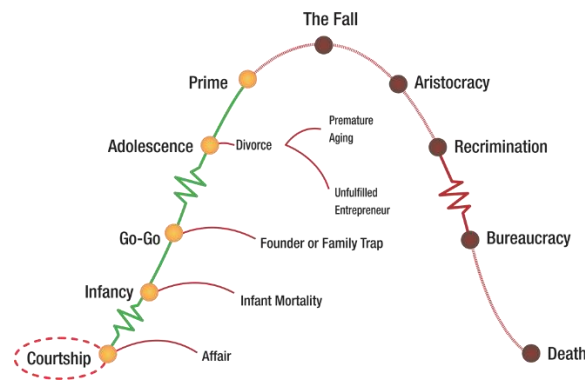


FIGURE 7: ADIZES BUSINESS LIFECYCLE

SOURCE: [HTTP://WWW.ADIZES.COM/COURTSHIP/](http://www.adizes.com/courtship/)

The Adizes lifecycle model (Adizes, 1979), is divided into left (depicted in green in the diagram above and right (depicted in red in the diagram below), the ‘growing’ and ‘aging’ stages (Figure 7).

In the beginning, the entrepreneur has an idea that he or she begins to fall in love with; hence, termed ‘courtship’. The company does not exist at this stage; so, it is a time of much talk and no action. If the commitment to the idea is weak, the idea goes no further than being an idea, and the entrepreneur is said to have an ‘affair’. The business idea is typically abandoned due to over-thinking, stalling, or most frequently, due to an inability to commit to one idea out of several that the founder may have considered. If the business is conceived, it moves on to ‘infancy’ – a stage focused on risk, action, and results in moving from crisis to crisis.

The company is said to need a ‘product champion’ (Adizes and Naiman 1988), someone who is committed to the launch of the enterprise with an unbelievable level of devotion. At this point ‘infant mortality’ can destroy the business if: the business idea is commercially unviable, there is weak and overly autocratic leadership, or frequently due to unavailability of necessary resources, such as cash. After infancy, the company starts to see the success of the wild years of the ‘go-go’ phase, where strong sales and cash flows can bring ‘arrogance’ into the business. Many opportunities are pursued, and energy may be wasted on a lack of focus.

While the infancy problem of negative cash flows may be resolved, a highly autocratic leadership, and an inability to let go of control can spread the entrepreneur’s efforts too thin, resulting in the ‘founder’s trap’, where employees are frequently left without training, direction, and authority to make decision; thus, trapping the business, and preventing growth. If the ‘family or founder’s trap’ is avoided, the organisation reaches the ‘adolescence’ stage, marked by in-fighting between administration and entrepreneurial sovereignty.

As the founder aims to relinquish control by employing administration staff that establish new policies and procedures, the founder is frequently the first to violate them, pushing the organization into a leadership

crisis. Relinquishing control by the founder can grow the organization, but it may lead to an ‘unfulfilled entrepreneur’, where the founder divorces the business, as the business takes on control of itself. When the organisation was young, it was very flexible, but not necessarily controllable. Younger stages of the organizational lifecycle are associated with a level of flexibility of an organization, while the older stages reflect controllable behaviour.

It is ‘prime’ that simultaneously brings the advantages of both young and old, flexibility and controllability, creativity and functionality, and growth and predictability to the organization. This is regarded as the aim of management as provision of a balance of growth and rejuvenation in order to keep the organization in this stage of the lifecycle.

A lack of rejuvenation or growth can lead to stagnation of the organizational growth, which can lead to a state of stability, marking the start of the aging process, ‘the fall’. A ‘stable’ organization develops a sense of security due to its stable position in the market place, halting creativity and urgency, and placing emphasis on orderliness and conservative approaches to ensure that past achievement is not endangered. Thus, a lack of excitement, risk averseness, and an increasingly formal atmosphere develops.

Continuing the path of increasing self-preservation and distancing from clients, the formalization process leads to formal dress codes, and elaborate use of space, formalized inter-personal relationships between colleagues; and, the image of a cash heavy ‘aristocracy’ is reached. The organization has little desire for changes, besides ‘artificial face-lifts’ (Adizes and Naiman 1988), and setting-up of control systems that require more attention from employees than customers.

In the ageing phases, the organization also faces bureaucratization as a repetitive problem. Increasing political issues within an organization come at the expense of customer service and focus. Future development of control systems, and customer neglect, can push the organization into ‘early bureaucracy’. This stage is marked with fears of lack of control, to which the management responds by instillation of further control systems. Also, risk averseness and diseconomies of scale drive away any possibilities of growth, pushing the company into a stage of ‘bureaucracy’, and finally ‘death’.

An understanding of business lifecycle is an attempt to generate a tool for forecasting future developments to allow for diagnosis and treatment of typical organizational behavioural problems, so as to allow for successful transition into the subsequent stages of the organizational development process. As such, the theory presents clear means for identification of each stage in which an organization. For example, Adizes (Adizes and Naiman 1988) states that “size and time are not causes of growth”. Each stage is said to have unique challenges that require particular management and leadership abilities.

Despite its commercial popularity, the lack of a validated scale can make the use of Adizes judgement criteria to be subjective. Lester et al. (2003) have created a scale that has been academically-validated and

available for use without copy right concerns unlike the Adizes (1996) research. The scale has five stages discussed below:

The first is the entrepreneurial or birth stage, similar to Quinn and Cameron (1983) with existence marking the beginning of organizational development. As termed, the focus is on sufficient number of clients and repeat clients to support the existence of the business. Control of decisions and ownership are in the hands of one, or a few, and the organizational structure is very simple (Lester et al., 2003).

The next stage is survival, reached as the firm moves into growth mode (Adizes, 1979), formalizing some of organizational structure (Quinn and Cameron 1983), and establish its own distinctive competencies and specializations (Barney, 1991). In search of this competitive advantage, goals are formulated routinely that focus on revenue, aiming to continue operations, and financial growth. Several traps (Adizes, 1996) can exist at this stage: the organizations can grow, or earn only marginal returns failing to grow, while others may become trapped due to insufficient revenue for survival (Lester and Parnell 2008). Most organizations in this stage are structured in a non-complex, more functional manner, and decision-making is more decentralized (Lester et al., 2003).

If the organization avoids the traps, it reaches maturity (Adizes, 1979), the 'success stage' (Lester et al., 2003). Formalization and control through bureaucracy are introduced (Quinn and Cameron 1983) often criticised for having 'red tape'. Job descriptions, policies and procedures, and hierarchical reporting relationships become much more formal (Lester and Parnell 2008). Having passed the survival test, the organization may target new territories or business spin-offs. Slowly, the top management team focuses on planning and strategy, leaving daily operations to middle managers. Organizational structure is varied, but many firms tend to be organized by product or geographic divisions due to the need to serve wide markets (Lester et al., 2003).

The stage of 'renewal' (Lester et al., 2003) is a strive to return to a leaner time and avoid dis-economies of scale being faced due to lack of collaboration and teamwork, seeking a return to innovation and creativity. The organization is seen to be large and bureaucratic with needs of customers placed above those of organizational members (Lester et al., 2003). Some organizations utilize the matrix structure to assure the success of collaboration and teamwork.

The last stage is decline, characterized by politics and power, as organizational members become more concerned with personal goals than they are with organizational goals. For some organizations, the inability to meet customer demands of a former stage can lead them to a period of decline. There may be lack of profit and a loss of market share. Control and decision-making tend to return to a handful of people, as the desire for power and influence in earlier stages has eroded the viability of the organization (Lester et al., 2003).

Adizes (1988) regarded new departments to be like new organizations; so, the choice of large organizations with sufficient departments presented an ideal sample for the research. Since the study aims at assessment of the position of different departments in the organization, the questionnaire needed to be changed in phrasing, e.g. ‘organization’ replaced by ‘department’, comparison between organizations will need to be amended to comparisons between departments, and since the firm being researched is a partnership the reference to shareholders and directors needed to be amended to partners of the firm. The amendments to the questionnaire are included in (Appendix 13.1) and tracked for reference. Confirmations were sought from the authors in respect of changes being proposed and if these would alter the validity of the scale in their opinion. Dr. J. Parnell (personal communication, May 29, 2018) confirmed that in his opinion these would not change the validity of the scale. Additionally, Dr. Lester (personal communication, June 2, 2018) accepted the same with reservations due to risk of any confusion for the respondents, and recommended retaining the word ‘organization’. However, subsequent communications (Lester, personal communication, June 7, 2018) allowed for his support for the same subject to clarity in whatever publications that may follow of the changes made to the wordings.

4.3.2 Locus of Control and Organizational Lifecycle

Adizes and Naiman (1988, p. 18) states: “In order for the birth of the organization... the more committed he or she [the founder] is the better. However, the time will come when he or she needs to be realistic and known how to let go”, or he or she may head for the founder’s trap, curbing growth of the organization. Adizes and Naiman (1988, p. 49) regarded “adolescence is a critical transition point. A benefit to the growth through a change in personality trait at this point can be expected. The company does not need someone like the founder. “It needs an administrator who is a totally different animal...”, clearly reflects the need for an alternative personality type for employees and leaders in adolescent organizations, compared to those at earlier stages of the organizational lifecycle. This research tests this relationship for locus of control personality trait, and if a specific expectancy can optimize happiness of the employees at work, which has direct repercussions regarding whether the employee would be an asset, or be a hindrance, at different positions on the organizational lifecycle (Zelenski, Murphy, & Jenkins, 2008).

The relationship between locus of control and entrepreneurship has been addressed by several scholars. They concluded that internality is strongly associated with entrepreneurship in small firms which incorporates innovation, pro-activity, risk taking, and personal direct control, all aspects which are traits of internals (Lefcourt, 1976b; D. Miller, Kets de, & Toulouse, 1982). As such, it was anticipated that the same relationship would exist for internals and departments in organizations in early stages of the business lifecycle.

While overall the statistics may prove internals to be more successful at business seeding, these entrepreneurs with an internal locus of control personality trait were said to follow a typical style of entrepreneurship, while externals were said to follow an alternative style, which can be more successful

subject to the industry environment. For example, Spector (1982) discovered the trend for internals to undertake innovative strategies, whereas their external counterparts tend to prefer low-cost strategies. Similarly, a stable industry environment was seen appropriate for internals due to the scrupulous planning propensity, while a dynamic industry more suitable for externals due to their ability to manoeuvre well in chance dependent scenarios (Wijbenga and Witteloostuijn 2007). Thus, academic literature vastly agrees of an association between entrepreneurial characteristics and locus of control expectancy (Brockhaus 1994; Cromie and O'Donaghue 1992; Shaver and Scott 1991; Perry 1990; Kaufmann et al. 1995) and proposes antecedents, moderators, and mediators to this relationship.

Larger and older organisations are mostly characterized by inertial forces that allow for operations to run smoothly within the organization, diminishing the need for active driving force of individuals, since decision making authority is delegated by means of formal structure. In large organisations, operations become institutionalized, which are difficult to change (Hambrick and Finkelstein 1987). As such, it is also anticipated that there may be a relationship between expectancy and department in organizations dependent on their stages on the business lifecycle.

Research with the big six accounting firms¹ examined the influence of systematic differences in levels of structure in the firms on auditor's performance (Hyatt and Prawitt 2001; Prawitt 1995). Their research concluded that internals tend to perform more efficiently in environments that allow them more control over their actions; thus, in less structured firms. It remains to be tested if this entails that externals performed better when more control is imposed upon them (Rotter, 1966; Spector, 1982). Since a primary characteristic of an organization progressing across lifecycle is an increase in structure (Adizes, 2017), it can be expected that the traits borne by individuals with an internal locus of control may act as hindrance to the organization to achieve success, as internality may be most useful for early stages of growth in an organization.

Spector (1982) suggested that locus of control might be a useful selection variable based on the argument that internals are better suited for positions that require independence, whereas externals may have superior person-job fit when the position requires little independent action, or requires strict obedience to rules or commands. However, (Coleman et al., 1999) states this as premature, deeming further research as necessary for establishing the relationships, hence supporting this research conducted.

5 Research Question

As the literature review highlights the largest, and fast growing problem of incapacity to work as depression (World Health Organization, 2017), with major dispositional contributors as: genetic predisposition (A. Weiss et al., 2008) and psychological traits (Judge et al., 2002), the field of

¹ The closure of Arthur Andersen due to Enron scandal, and merger of Price Waterhouse with Coopers & Lybrand caused the decrease from big six to the current big four currently.

organizational management can address the problem through research into psychological traits that correlate with constructs in the field that relate to happiness at work (Fisher, 2010), namely: job satisfaction (H. M. Weiss, 2002), affective organizational commitment (Mowday, 1998) and engagement (Kahn, 1990).

Research in the field has revealed correlations between psychological traits and many of the constructs of happiness at work, with endorsements for further research (Judge et al., 2002). While meta-analysis of the psychological traits reveals a significant correlation, and locus of control also concluded a significant relationship with job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2001), several options to enhance findings are identified: use of locus of control scale (Rotter, 1966), segregating organizational characteristics to allow for exploration of job-organization fit (Verquer et al., 2003) by use of the business lifecycle (Lester et al., 2003), and the use of three constructs for happiness at work collectively (Fisher, 2010) (Figure 8).

FIGURE 8: THE GAP IDENTIFIED FOR THIS RESEARCH



Generated through problematisation (Alvesson and Sandberg 2011), and developed through the literature review (Rubin and Babbie 2011), the researcher proposes to address the following question:

General Objective: Investigating best fit for employees based on their locus of control expectancy to the position of the department in the organisational lifecycle to optimize happiness at work

Quantitative Research Questions:

- Is there a relationship between the position of the department in the organizational lifecycle and level of happiness at work?
- Does locus of control expectancy of an employee moderate this relationship?

Qualitative Research Question: What aspects of the department contribute towards this relationship for employees with different locus of control expectancies?

Research Question: Investigating the relationship, between organizational lifecycle and happiness at work for employees with different locus of control expectancies, and its antecedents.

5.1 Research Hypotheses

The Oxford Dictionary of English (Oxford University Press, 2005, p. 855) defines hypothesis as “a supposition or proposed explanation made on the basis of limited evidence as a starting point for further investigation”. “A hypothesis is a proposition that is stated in testable form and predicts a particular relationship between two (or more) variables” (Bailey, 1987, p. 41). In other words, for quantitative research, if it is anticipated that a relationship exists, it is first stated as a hypothesis, and then the hypothesis is tested. “A hypothesis test is used to answer questions about particular values for a population parameter, or particular relationships in a population, based on the information in the sample data” (Utts and Heckard 2007, p.495).

The following hypotheses will be tested following the collection of data during the research:

The null Hypothesis: There is no relationship between the stage of development of the department in the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work of the employees.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a relationship between the stage of development of the department in the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work of the employees.

For testing the relationship for different locus of control expectancies, the hypotheses are as follows:

The null Hypothesis: There is no relationship between the stage of development of the department in the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work of employees with an internal locus of control expectancy.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a relationship between the stage of development of the department in the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work of employees with an internal locus of control expectancy.

The null Hypothesis: There is no relationship between the stage of development of the department in the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work of employees with a balanced locus of control expectancy.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a relationship between the stage of development of the department in the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work of employees with a balanced locus of control expectancy.

The null Hypothesis: There is no relationship between the stage of development of the department in the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work of employees with an external locus of control expectancy.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a relationship between the stage of development of the department in the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work of employees with an external locus of control expectancy.

6 Research Paradigm

Originating from the Greek word ‘paradeigma’ which means pattern, research paradigm denotes a conceptual framework of the research. This framework provides a convenient model for examining solutions to the research problem identified (Burrell and Morgan 1979). The paradigm refers to various research cultures, each with a set of beliefs, values, and assumptions, out of which research is conducted. Each researcher can identify with which their own paradigm based on their philosophical stance, one with which he or she can align their ideology, nature and conduct of their research.

6.1 Philosophical Stance

Grounded in science, with a career in the field of finance, and over a decade long interest in psychology, the researcher’s philosophical stance is very objective. Since science proves that the world predates individuals, it confirms existence of phenomena before human consciousness. As such, the researcher believes that the phenomena shall continue to exist post human consciousness; therefore, can exist irrespective of humans’ attempts to understand it or not. While cognitive efforts from individuals change perceptions and understanding of these phenomena, the world continues to exist, made up of hard tangible phenomena that are believed by the researcher to be relatively immutable structures (Gill and Johnson 2010). Hence, the researcher’s ontology is one of realism (Burrell and Morgan 1979).

Much of the research in organisational science is based on the assumption that reality is objective and awaiting discovery. The researcher’s epistemology is founded on similar – one of positivism. While the researcher’s basic belief of paradigms is grounded in positivism, by viewing the realism with a critical eye, and including a qualitative aspect to the research method to add depth and voice to this research’s findings, this research has expanded the researcher’s epistemological view in this research into post-positivism (Guba and Lincoln 1994).

Based on researcher’s philosophical stance which is grounded in realism, this research sought valid knowledge based on concrete reality; hence, must be discovered through observations and measurements (Giddens, 2008) even through the constructs in reference to this research are arguably intangible or subjective. However, the existence of validated constructs within the concept of happiness at work, locus of control, and positioning of the departments on the organizational lifecycle, allows for research on the topic with such a philosophical stance – using quantitative method (Neeman, 2005).

On the fundamental nature of humans, the prominent question is whether the researcher believes humans are the controller or the controlled. With reference to researcher’s extreme internal locus of control expectancy, the researcher’s perception of control is that it lies within the individual. Based on this perception, relationship between man and society is seen as deterministic; the world has causal relationships that explain the patterns to social behaviour (Fiss, 2011). Hence this research conducted is

predominantly quantitative, aiming at developing deductive knowledge contribution to the field, and the open ended query regarding happiness at work allows for some scope of inductive analysis for this research (Sullivan and Venter 2010).

6.2 Research Methodology

Holden and Lynch (2004, p. 397) suggest: “not be methodologically led, rather that methodological choice should be consequential to the researcher’s philosophical stance and the social science phenomenon to be investigated”. Forecasting research, laboratory experiments, large scale surveys, modelling and simulations are methodologies that are said to be strictly positivistic, with minimal room for interpretation (Saunders et al., 2012). In social sciences, the most viable methodology from the list above is one of large-scale surveys.

Although the researcher’s philosophical stance is one of objectivism, few researchers today make extreme assumptions, with most business research has been from a more moderate objective position (Holden and Lynch 2004). Due to the subjective nature of the social science phenomenon being investigated, the researcher regarded it important to extend this research method to a more postpositive paradigm, and certainly for the discussion and conclusions of this research to embrace subjectivity of the subject matter. Hence, the researcher accepts that the causal relationship can only be imperfectly and probabilistically determined (Guba and Lincoln 1994).

While the main research methodology proposed the use of surveys, which aligned well with the paradigm, a second methodology of an open-ended question for qualitative analysis method was also undertaken. This second methodology allowed for voice and depth to the research, as it explored the lived, work experiences of the research respondents (Guba and Lincoln 1994). This research uses quantitative analysis which is followed by analysis of the open-ended question to help explain the quantitative findings for obtaining explanations and richer insights. The approach towards analysis of the open-ended enquiry followed the quantitative analysis questions, making the approach an explanatory sequential mixed method design (Sauro, 2015), where the quantitative data is much larger than the qualitative data, and the qualitative data helps to explain the quantitative data.

6.2.1 Survey

Researchers with a psychological stance of positivism tend to employ quantitative research methodology, using experimental methods to test hypothetical generalizations, as they measure causal relationships between variables (Golafshani, 2003). As such, this research’s strategy employed will be the survey strategy with the use of questionnaires. A questionnaire is a techniques of data collection in which each person is asked to respond to the same set of questions in a pre-determined order (de Vaus, 1995). It is one

of the most widely used data collection techniques, because it is an efficient way of collecting responses from large samples (Saunders et al., 2012).

The research hypotheses are dependent on the position of the organization in the organizational lifecycle (Lester & Parnell, 2008). Partners of the firms were requested to complete the questionnaire to place their respective departments at a position along the organizational lifecycle (Lester et al., 2003). Additionally, employees in the department completed a questionnaire to report on their locus of control expectancy (Rotter, 1966), and happiness at work (Fisher, 2010) for the researcher to obtain the data to test the correlation.

Constructs of: job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, and engagement were recommended as a measure for the umbrella concept of happiness at work (Fisher, 2010). After a review of the options available for measuring each of the constructs, Meyer et al.'s (1993) measure of organizational commitment (Appendix 13.2.2.2), Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003) (Appendix 13.2.2.3) and Job in General Scale for Job Satisfaction (Appendix 13.2.2.1) were chosen for the questionnaire. These are discussed in detail in the literature review section of the dissertation in their respective headings.

In respect of locus of control, the construct can be reliably calculated using abbreviated Rotter's (1966) Internal-External scale with thorough validity (Valecha & Ostrom, 1974). Unlike the option of two choices in the Rotter (1966) I-E scale, Andrisani and Nestle (1976) allowed the respondents to score each statement from one to four, based on the level of conviction towards the statement. Joe and Jahn (1973) did similar by requesting intensity of their choice on a six point scale. Klockars and Varnum (1975) test of the scale illustrated that a range was more coherent than two widely separated points, and Adeyemi-Bello (2001) found the scale confused individuals who did not feel polarized but agreed with both statements. Despite the above optional variances to the scale, Rotter's (1966) I-E Scale cannot be challenged for its robustness in its validity for measurement of generalized expectancy (Adeyemi-Bello, 2001); as such, the abbreviated version of the scale was used (Valecha & Ostrom, 1974).

The researcher used pre-tested and validated constructs that formed the questionnaire; as such, personal input from the researcher to the questionnaire is limited. Nonetheless, it is highly recommended that questionnaires must be pretested; that is, 'piloted' on a small sample of people characteristic of those in the survey (Leung, 2001). Once the questionnaire was generated, the researcher piloted it on a sample of people as a trial run (Saunders et al., 2012) and found that the initially used faces scale of job satisfaction (Kunin, 1955) was found by the participant's as limiting their expression of their emotions amongst all the variety of emojis currently used for expressing emotions. Emojis could have been introduced to the scale; however, this leads to the additional difficulty of assessment of meaning to emojis which are found not to be standardized (H. Miller et al., 2016). Other comments regarding the surveys from the pilot study were

regarding clarity, proposal of change of words or omission of certain questions to the surveys which was not incorporated as the surveys are validated.

6.2.2 Sampling

The idea in sampling is: “extrapolation from the part to the whole – from ‘the sample’ to ‘the population’” (Freedman, 2004, p. 986). Methods for choosing samples are called designs. A good design uses probability methods to minimize subjective judgement by the researcher, and chooses the sample to fairly represent the population for legitimate generalization of the theory obtained from the sample.

Since the research question aims at understanding happiness at work at different levels of development on an organizational lifecycle, the generalizability sought is one of applicability to an average employee in any organization. The option for type of organization and industries in which they operate are many. Brownell (2014), Reed et al. (Reed, Kratchman, & Strawser, 1994), Prawit (1995), Tsui and Gul (1996), Hyatt and Prawit (2001), Bernardi (2012) have all based their research sample on accounting firms when investigating the relationship with locus of control. Spector (1982) concluded that there is some evidence of the significance of locus of control in accounting firms. As such, the accounting firms were the target sample for this research.

In seeking organizations that are at different stages on the organizational lifecycle, a note from Adizes (1988, p. 28) emphasized that “new departments or spin-offs are like new organisations...”. This presents a useful alternative to a great number of organizations to be included in the study, and substituting these for a large number of departments within an organization; using departments as the sample unit that are positioned differently on the organization lifecycle.

This option for allocating departments to the organizational lifecycle was raised with Dr. Lester and Dr. Parnell for the use of their scale (Lester and Parnell 2008; Lester et al. 2003). Dr. Parnell, a co-author to the papers referenced and scale being used stated: “In my view, the changes you made (department vs. organization) do not change the validity of the scale. When respondents read “organization,” they might consider the entire firm or just their business unit anyway. In this respect, it is reasonable to consider the stage of their departments. Others might disagree, but I do not see any validity problems” (Parnell, Personal communication, 29 May 2018). A precaution was also suggested by Dr. Parnell to enquire of department size, function and history. This was done through use of employee count in the department, age of the department, and business unit of the departments e.g. Audit, Taxation, Company Secretarial and others which allowed for triangulation with the stage of development the department was found on the scale.

Dr. Don Lester (personal communication, 4 June 2018), the lead author of the research referenced (Lester and Parnell 2008; Lester et al. 2003), raised two concerns regarding the matter: firstly, the risk that this “would lead to false results due to the more limited scope of what you would be measuring”, and secondly,

the risk that amendments proposed to the scale may “confuse respondents”. Highlighting to Dr. Lester the industry for the research, and the fact that each department in accounting firms acts as a separate business unit, the concerns were resolved, with precautions highlighted by Dr, Lester (personal communication, 7 June 2018) requesting to: “target the respondent you will get valid results”, hence partners of the firm with highest authority were targeted as respondents. Dr. Don Lester (personal communication, 4 June 2018) added: “If you feel you must alter the scale, make sure that is made very clear in whatever publications follow”, hence the changes to the scale have been tracked in Appendix 13.1.

The idea of using departments instead of organizations is further encouraged due to the fact that departments within the same organization will have several aspects in common, leading to a dominant variable of position on the organizational lifecycle; thus, limiting the variables that can distract the results for the constructs being investigated (Price, 1997). As such, large accounting firms with multiple departments were sought as samples for the research.

In ethnographic research, the importance of “getting in and getting along” (Kirk and Miller 1986, p.62) cannot be undermined for gaining useful and accurate information. The researcher had hoped that access and establishing rapport will be possible for the researcher, being a fellow of the Institute of Chartered Accountants in England and Wales, and had expected credibility with the accounting firms. A nationwide sample was also noted to be useful as large samples are deemed important for a research as they lead to more reliable results (Barat, 2009). Hence, an on-line questionnaire on Graduate School of Business survey approved software, ‘selectsurvey.net’, was launched, and the completion of it was promoted by liaising with the human resources departments for the employee questionnaire, and directly with the partners of the firm (with the approval of the Chairman), for the questionnaire about the position of the department on the organizational lifecycle.

In discussions with one of the top 10 accounting firms (E. Lansberg, 30 July 2018, Personal Interview), where the study was conducted, it was agreed that ‘level of engagement’, if maximised, would lead to higher performance in departments in the firms. This was expected as a known problem for the firms. As such, commercial interest in vigor, dedication and absorption for the firms was abundant, and also in understanding the reasons (environmental, or departmental) that allow happiness at work in the firms was noted to be of interest to the firm.

Leedy and Ormrod (2005) emphasise that individuals who should be selected for the research are people who will be able to provide appropriate and relevant information. The researcher believes that the group chosen present a group of suitable respondents to the questionnaire based on literacy (computer and language) and competence. The questionnaire did not require translation, which may have lowered the validity of the scales. All research was conducted in English.

In light of this sampling methodology, this research does not presume to be representative for the world population in general (Peshkin, 1993). The sample potentially represented a sub-group of the population

that worked in the accounting firms, or extrapolated to employees in large partnerships, such as legal firms. Further details regarding limitations of the research are discussed in the relevant chapter in the dissertation.

6.2.3 Data Analysis

Data is a plural word referring to the number or non-numerical labels collected from a set of entities (Utts and Heckard 2007). The primary task of the data analysis is the identification of common themes. Since the data is collected by the researcher, and not available in the public domain, the data collected for this research is regarded as primary data (Leedy and Ormrod 2005).

6.2.3.1 Quantitative Data

The quantitative data source is from two surveys. Firstly, the stage of development or position of the department in the organizational lifecycle (Lester et al., 2003), and secondly, the level of happiness at work (Fisher, 2010) and the employees' locus of control expectancy (Rotter, 1966). The data collected achieved: identification of the stage of the department organizational lifecycle (Lester et al., 2003) from the most reliable source in the firm, the partner in-charge of the department, and the employee's locus of control expectancy (Rotter, 1966), affective organizational commitment level (Meyer et al., 1993), engagement level (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003; Seppälä et al. 2009) and job satisfaction level (Ironson et al., 1989; S. S. Russell et al., 2004) from the horse's mouth, the employees themselves.

Due to the use of Likert scales (Aguinis et al., 2009), all data obtained is ordinal. Ordinal data are those which the assigned numbers reflects a particular order or sequence (Leedy and Ormrod 2005). Therefore, Spearman Rank Order Correlation analysis is used in the data analysis section to test the correlation between stage of development of the department, employee' locus of control expectancy, and happiness at work constructs (Raubenheimer, 2007, Personal Interview; Dr. K. Ramaboa, 5 February 2019, Personal Interview). Spearman's correlation is a rank-based correlation measure; it is non-parametric and does not rest upon an assumption of normality. Spearman Rank Order Correlation examines the extent to which differences in one characteristic or variable is related to differences in one or more other characteristics or variables (Leedy and Ormrod 2005). A correlation is a statistic that measures the strength and direction of a liner relationship between two variables. The decision whether to accept or reject the null hypothesis is based on a designated level of significance (p-value). As standard, a 1% significance level will be used to assess the result as significant. If the data set rejected the null hypothesis on a 1% significance level, then a 5% benchmark is used to classify the relationship as significant at 5% level; however, the researcher recognizes the need for caution in drawing conclusion from results obtained at this level of significance (Utts and Heckard 2007) (Table 1).

TABLE 1: BENCHMARKS FOR CONCLUDING STATISTICAL SIGNIFICANCE

Statistical significance	Conclusion
p value < 1%	The null hypothesis rejected at 1% significance level, results regarded as highly significant, depicted with **
1% ≤ p value < 5%	The null hypothesis rejected at 5% significance level, results regarded as significant, depicted with *
p value ≥ 5%	The null hypothesis accepted.

In addition to the above, the conclusions are also dependent on the gradient of the best fit line, depicting the degree of strength of the relationship, shown by the Spearman Rank Order Correlation Coefficient (β). The criteria used to judge the strength of the relationship is summarized (Table 2), with values closer to ± 1 showing higher levels of strength of relationship, and closer to 0 showing weaker relationships.

TABLE 2: BENCHMARK FOR CONCLUDING STRENGTH OF CORRELATION

Spearman Rank Order Correlation Co-efficient	Conclusion
$0 < \beta < \pm 0.2$	Weak relationship
$\pm 0.2 \leq \beta < \pm 0.35$	Medium strength relationship
$\pm 0.35 \leq \beta < \pm 0.5$	Strong relationship
$\pm 0.5 \leq \beta < \pm 1.0$	Very strong relationship
$\beta = \pm 1$	Perfect correlation

Since this research is predominantly quantitative in nature and depends on primary data, it is important to establish the reliability, validity and objectivity thereof (Quinlan et al. 2015; Kumar 2014; Gray 2017; Cresswell and Plano Clark 2011).

Additionally, to test how the relationship between two variables (independent and dependent) is influenced by a third variable, hierarchical regression can be used to check if the introduction of the moderating variables enhances the predictability of the causal relationship (Dr. K. Ramaboa, 5 February 2019, Personal Interview). Should the variable introduced to the model, affect the strength of the relationship between a dependent and independent variable, it is deemed a moderator, denoted by the letter M. This is different from a mediator that influences the independent and dependent variables directly, hence allowing for an influence to the relationship. Since locus of control cannot influence the position of a department in the organizational lifecycle, the variable is tested as a moderator.

6.2.3.1.1 Reliability

Reliability is the consistency with which a measuring instrument yields same results for the same research sample. It is a measure of trustworthiness of the data, and the research's ability to be duplicated and produce the same results (Leedy and Ormrod 2005). Inherently, instruments designed measure psychological characteristics are less reliable than those designed to measure physical phenomenon. As such, inherently, the measurement of locus of control, with its fundamentals based in childhood is a

reliable measure based on the psychological foundation that basic character structures of individuals are fixed by early childhood experiences, and are only changeable through lengthy, and often painful, mediums of psychoanalytical therapy (Hjelle and Ziegler 1976; Freud 1921). While some psychologists such as Erikson (Waterman, 1999) assume a much greater degree of changeability in personality than, for example, Freud, the generalized nature of locus of control (non-situation specific) and a trait being regarded as core self-evaluation (Judge and Bono 2001) assures high levels of reliability.

The measures of happiness at work are highly dictated by genetic predisposition (Arvey et al., 1989; A. Weiss et al., 2008) and personality (Judge and Bono 2001), which are also stable; hence, assurance of reliability. Though consistent over a period of time, these are subject to change based on the antecedents of the constructs. However, since this variability of environmental differences and hope these effect happiness at work is the relationship being questioned in the research, the measurements used are fairly reliable, though it incorporates event-based variations (Weiss and Cropanzano 1996) which is likely to lead to lower reliability than locus of control expectancy.

Positioning of the departments on the organizational lifecycle is non-psychological, and more a physical phenomenon, as such inherently more reliable than insubstantial measures. Nonetheless, the comparative nature of the questions in the survey, from an epistemological point of view, present a more subjective relativists view that argue many equal versions of reality; where each version of reality is considered viable only relative to another view and does not stand ground independently (Holden and Lynch 2004). It is anticipated that since the survey is completed by partners of the firm, that all operate under the same organization, the relative nature of the questions will be responded to in comparison to the organization at large, hence present reliable data.

6.2.3.1.2 *Validity*

Validity refers to the accuracy, meaningfulness and credibility of the measurement instrument (Frey, 2018). Internal validity, or credibility, considers how far the researcher's constructions influence the research process (Gray, 2017). Since the surveys used in this research were academically-tested and validated questionnaires, validity is the credibility of the constructs used.

It is deemed important to ensure that the internal validity of the questionnaires remained for this research conducted (Leung, 2001). Internal consistency reflects the homogeneity of the measure. As such, Cronbach's alpha, a measure of internal consistency, that is, how closely related a set of items are as a group, was conducted for each construct under the umbrella concept of happiness at work (Fisher, 2010). The theoretical value of alpha varies from 0 to 1. As a rule of thumb, constructs require a reliability of 0.70, or higher, with 0.60 as the lowest acceptable threshold (Table 3).

TABLE 3: BENCHMARK FOR CONCLUDING RELIABILITY OF SCALE FROM CRONBACH'S ALPHA VALUES

Cronbach alpha value	Reliability
$0,80 < \alpha < 0,95$	Very good
$0,70 < \alpha < 0,80$	Good
$0,60 < \alpha < 0,70$	Fair

(Saunders et al., 2009)

TABLE 4: CRONBACH'S ALPHA VALUES FOR HAPPINESS AT WORK CONSTRUCTS

Reliability Statistics for Happiness at Work Questionnaire		
Happiness at Work Constructs	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items on the questionnaire
Commitment	.838	6
Engagement	.935	9
Job Satisfaction	.875	8
Happiness at Work	.948	23

While all the above constructs passed the validity requirements (Table 4), it was noted that omitting two questions would enhance the validity (Table 5):

- Commitment: I really feel as if this department's problems are my own.
- Engagement: I get carried away when I'm working.

Due to the limited improvement in Cronbach's Alpha values, it is evident that all the questions in the constructs are valid and representative of the construct as a whole. As such, the data analysis was conducted on all questions in the original construct (without deleting any questions from the survey).

TABLE 5: CRONBACH'S ALPHA VALUE FOR HAPPINESS AT WORK CONSTRUCTS AFTER DELETING TWO QUESTIONS

Amended Reliability Statistics for Happiness at Work Questionnaire		
Happiness at Work Constructs	Cronbach's Alpha	Amended no. of Items on the Questionnaire
Commitment	.869	5
Engagement	.937	8
Job Satisfaction	.875	8
Happiness at Work	.950	21

6.2.3.1.3 Internal Correlations

Since the constructs are seen as contributing to one umbrella concept of happiness at work, it was regarded important to test the relationship in-between them to ensure that these constructs can be confirmed to be operating under the same concept of happiness at work (Fisher, 2010). Since the scales vary in their range, the data was ranked to ensure monotony of the scales. The relationship between these scales are analysed using Spearman Rank Order Correlation, which assesses how well the relationship between two scales can be described using a monotonic function. Highly significant correlations (1% significance levels) of very strong strength (β between ± 0.50 and ± 0.99) provide confidence that the constructs can be combined together to allow for an understanding of the umbrella concept of happiness at work (Table 6).

TABLE 6: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN CONSTRUCTS OF HAPPINESS AT WORK

Spearman Rank Order Correlations				
		COMMITMENT	ENGAGEMENT	SATISFACTION
COMMITMENT	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.677**	.613**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000
	N	369	369	369
VIGOR	Correlation Coefficient	.680**	.929**	.737**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	369	369	369
DEDICATION	Correlation Coefficient	.594**	.935**	.655**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	369	369	369
ABSORPTION	Correlation Coefficient	.568**	.867**	.562**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	369	369	369
ENGAGEMENT	Correlation Coefficient	.677**	1.000	.721**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000
	N	369	369	369
SATISFACTION	Correlation Coefficient	.613**	.721**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.
	N	369	369	369
Correlations of all constructs is significant at 0.01 level (highly significantly correlated) and of very strong strength (β between ± 0.50 and ± 0.99).				

It must be noted that academic research has not yet allowed for an understanding of the degree each of these constructs contribute towards the concept of happiness at work. Nonetheless, the fact that correlations which are strong, but not close to 0.1 (except correlations for the components within the construct of engagement, vigor, dedication and absorption, with the construct of engagement) entails that while the constructs operate under the same umbrella of happiness at work, they are substantially different,

evaluating the concept of happiness at work from different facets of the subject (Dr. K. Ramaboa, 5 February 2019, Personal Interview).

6.2.3.1.4 Data Distribution

Allen et al. (1974) concluded that an internal locus of control is related to greater academic achievement; therefore, due to the academic requirements for the accounting profession, greater prevalence of internals than externals was expected in the firm. The data collected showed locus of control to include internals, those with a balanced locus of control, and externals, with no respondents reporting a 0 or 11 value (which are the minimum and maximum values for the scale) (Joe and Jahn 1973). Despite the analysis technique of Spearman Rank Order Correlation (ρ) used, where normality of the data is not necessary, it is important to note that a fair representation of all expectancies of locus of control formed the data set.

6.2.3.1.5 Business Lifecycle and Locus of Control

Spector (1982) suggested that individuals with an internal locus of control should be more job satisfied because they are less likely to stay in a dissatisfying job due to their proactive nature (Ahn, 2015) and are more likely to be successful in organizations. In reference to this, it was a concern for this research that internals will be abundantly present in departments with a specific position on the organizational development, hence not allow for a normal distribution along the organizational lifecycle. As such, this was tested to check if a relationship existed between position of the department in the organizational lifecycle and locus of control expectancy of the employees using Spearman Rank Order correlation.

The null Hypothesis: There is no relationship between the stage of development of the department in the organizational lifecycle and the employees' locus of control expectancy.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a relationship between the stage of development of the department in the organizational lifecycle and the employees' locus of control expectancy.

TABLE 7: BUSINESS LIFECYCLE AND LOCUS OF CONTROL CORRELATION

Stage of Development	Locus of Control 0-11
Correlation Coefficient	0.072
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.201
N	316

Conclusion: The null hypothesis is accepted. There is no relationship found between locus of control and the stage of development of the department.

6.2.3.2 Qualitative Data

The research design is a quantitative one, using survey methodology. Having an open-ended question in a quantitative questionnaire does not meet the criteria for a mixed methods research design (Hanson et al. 2005; Cresswell and Plano Clark 2011). The majority of the data being collected is quantitative in order to test the hypotheses laid out.

After completion of some demographic questions, and the academically-validated questionnaires of affective organizational commitment level (Meyer et al., 1993), engagement level (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003; Seppälä et al. 2009) and job satisfaction level (Ironson et al., 1989; S. S. Russell et al., 2004) to assess level of happiness at work (Fisher, 2010), the survey page ended with an open-ended question allowing this research's participants the option to comment freely, in respect of the survey completed. The aim of the qualitative research was to allow for an investigation into antecedents to happiness at work. However, as found in the pilot study, the focus on important aspects of happiness at work was lost in the event of a completely open-ended question. As such, in seeking the fundamental antecedents of happiness at work, the top three aspects allowing for happiness at work were queried.

The main disadvantage of using a quantitative approach is that the questions asked are restrictive, forcing respondents to answer in a particular way. The options for answering are finite, which may introduce bias into the responses. Including an open-ended question in the questionnaire mitigates this concern to a certain degree, as it allows respondents to answer freely. In addition to triangulation with the scores on the scales, the quantitative data can therefore be used to supplement and provide depth to the quantitative data. Since the quantitative and qualitative data is used to answer different research sub-questions, it requires integration of the results (Cresswell and Plano Clark 2011; Gray 2017). The analysis of this information will therefore allow the quantitative findings to be confirmed through triangulation, and potentially enhanced.

Analyzing this sort of data is qualitative data analysis, which is fundamentally about understanding people and recognizing patterns. Research methods argue that such data is more likely to: “lead to serendipitous findings and to new integrations; they help researchers get beyond the initial conceptions and to generate or revise conceptual frameworks” (Miles and Huberman 1994, p.1), hence contributing to inductive study (Sullivan and Venter 2010; Lind and Goldkuhl 2007).

The actual method of turning qualitative data into insights is through coding (Bailey, 1987). A system of ‘tagging’ was used. Tagging of the qualitative data involves the following steps: look through qualitative data, identification of repeating themes (e.g. pain points, problems, or appreciations of the department), tagging these repeated themes them with a ‘code’ to make them searchable and countable, evolving the codes by merging or breaking them down to end with themes and an idea of their frequency, elaborating a small set of generalizations, or create new conceptual framework, or theorizing based on the generalizations (Miles and Huberman 1994).

In analyzing antecedents of happiness at work through questioning three most significant aspects that allow or hinder happiness at work, the research aimed to discover the most frequently mentioned aspect that allowed or hindered employees to be happy at work. Additionally, it aimed (in an inductive manner) to investigate the antecedents that may not be frequently present, but lead to the largest impact on the level of happiness at work.

6.3 Ethical Considerations

Since the research involved human subjects in an organization, a close look at ethical implications of the research was deemed necessary. Ethical issues in research fall in four categories: protection from harm, informed consent, right to privacy and honesty with professional colleagues, which are elaborated on below (Leedy and Ormrod 2005).

Both, the organizations participating in the research, and the participants require protection from harm (Saunders and Lewis 2012). For the firm, it is acknowledged that confidential information will be available to the researcher, which can be used by competitors for example to poach staff, duplicate organizational structure, identify department partners, or others stakeholder's information. As such, the researcher ensured that the name of the organization was kept confidential. The research discloses only what is known to be publicity available information, unless explicitly permitted by the organization. The code name of 'M&Ms' was given to the organization, and information access was secured, by storing all of the data on one the University of Cape Town's servers, and ensured be accessible with a password.

With reference to the employees of the firm, the information in respect of their level of happiness at work can be used by the organization to anticipate performance and length of service, which can influence: promotions, salary increments, job security and other consequences for the participants. It was deemed vital to ensure that the participants' information is confidential, and to assure the participants of highest level of confidentiality to allow for honest completion of the questionnaire (Saunders et al., 2012) that the identification of the participants was not requested in completing the survey – the survey did not request name of the participants, or other identification information. While departmental information was requested, the size of the department and sufficient number of employees in each ensured confidentiality for each participant. The organization was informed of the need for confidentiality of the respondents from the start, and that individually-completed surveys would not be made available to the organization, irrespective of the fact that these are not identifiable to an employee.

The above also ensured right to privacy of the participants and the firm. The researcher ensured that, under no circumstances, would data be disclosed, where it was available, e.g., if the participant chose to answer the optional question requiring their email address for future correspondence. It is recognized that this can jeopardize anonymity of this research's participants (Rhodes, 2010) and it was treated as such.

To ensure “protection of human subjects by making informed consent the centrepiece of regulatory attention” (Rhodes, 2010, p. 19), the questionnaire started with a brief of the nature of the study, informing the participants of the voluntary nature of their participation, their right to withdraw or remain engaged with the research, availability of counselling if required, contact details of the researcher and the supervisor (telephone numbers and email addresses), with the option to receive the published research if desired, with the assurance that the participant’s name is not available to the researcher, and would not be mentioned in any future writings or publications. This research was approved by the Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee, which allows further confidence of ethical compliance of this research (M. Sempu, Personal communication, 26 June 2018).

In presentation of the results, the researcher is obliged to always report full findings in an unbiased fashion. In respect of the questionnaire, the analysis was designed prior to completion of the questionnaire to prevent researcher bias. Choice of participants was at the discretion of the individual employee, and not influenced by the researcher or the firm (Utts and Heckard 2007). All employees of the firm were invited to complete the survey. With reference to the open-ended question, auto-coding was used to assist to avoid any personal bias by the researcher in order to ensure honesty with professional colleagues about the findings.

Neuman (2002) regards ethics of a proposed research to be highly dependent on the researcher’s personal moral code. A strong personal moral code is regarded as the best defence against unethical behaviour with regards to research conducted. The researcher is a fellow of the Institute of Chartered Accountants in England and Wales. The institute boasts one of the highest levels of professional ethical standards which bind the researcher in his professional capacity. These professional ethical codes of the researcher provide a sound level of defence against unethical behaviour in conducting the research, particularly in commerce that operates under similar codes of ethics (Rhodes, 2010).

The researcher, having worked in large accounting firms and being a fellow of the Institute of Chartered Accountants in England and Wales, has proximity to the respondents, which can lead to bias. Additionally, potential bias may be present due to the researcher’s strong internal locus of control hence the ability to relate better to internals than externals. Quantitative analysis inherently allows for protection against this bias. In respect of the open-ended question, Leedy and Ormond (2005) assert the importance of suspending judgement, by setting aside preconceived notion and expectations, and that the focus should be on what is written – this requires the researcher to read and code intently. Neutrality of the phrasing of the open question: “OPTIONAL: Having completed the above, is there anything you wish to share?” and auto-coding of the replies allow for this. Additionally, the researcher does not have any gain (monetary or otherwise e.g. employment opportunity) for the purpose of this research, which is deemed important for neutrality of the researcher (Bailey, 1987).

The potential inflation of correlations between measures assessed via the same method (e.g., self-report) is well known as the threat of Common Methods Bias or Common Methods Variance (Meade, Watson, & Kroustalis, 2007). Conway and Lance (2010, p. 329) state that “self-reports are clearly appropriate for job satisfaction and many other private events, but for other constructs such as job characteristics or job performance, other types of measures might be appropriate or even superior” (Conway and Lance 2010, p.329). As such, the self-completed survey method of assessing job satisfaction, job commitment, affective job engagement, and locus of control are supported by this notion. The assessment of position of the department in the organization lifecycle is not included in the same survey to avoid Common Methods Bias, and instead the partners or directors controlling the department were requested to complete a survey to assess this variable, effectively avoiding Common Methods Bias.

Furthermore, Conway and Lance (2010, p. 325) believe it is reasonable to expect: “(a) an argument for why self-reports are appropriate, (b) construct validity evidence, (c) lack of overlap in items for different constructs, and (d) evidence that authors took proactive design steps to mitigate threats of method effects” when the researcher is faced with the possibility of bias. The study focuses on self-reported constructs with sufficient validity and reliability, which are designed to use of negatively worded items, randomized item order, and multiple methods and ratters whenever possible, as advised by Meade et al. (2007). The existence of overlap items due to the investigation of concept of happiness at work consisting of constructs of job satisfaction, job commitment and job engagement as recommended by Fisher (2010) are inherent to investigate the concept.

Since the preconceived notions of internality as optimal are challenged by the hypothesis is the research, as such, Common Methods Bias is unlikely to further validate the correlation due to the bias in the same direction for all correlations being tested. Additionally, triangulation using the open-ended question focused on assessment of any bias of self-assessment of happiness at work and locus of control. It is therefore argued by the researcher that, as stated by Meade et al (2007, p. 4), “Common Methods Bias may be trivially small and certainly does not necessarily jeopardize the validity of study conclusions in every case”, applies to this research conducted.

“The influence of the researcher’s values is not minor” (Miles and Huberman 1994, p.10). It is hoped that the extent of open-endedness of the survey question would have avoided influencing the response by the participant. Also, the researcher did not meet, call, nor have identification information, or any knowledge of the respondent, in order to limit such potential influence. The risk of bias does lie in interpretation of the comments by the respondents. It is hoped that caution, care and self-awareness of the researcher would assist to mitigate influence to interpretations coloured through the researcher’s values. Presenting comments as quotations and not amending the responses would hopefully spot any bias in interpretations by the reviewers. For example, while the researcher is accustomed to working days which are longer than suggested by one respondent, personal judgement was set aside and the comment is noted as a work-life

balance concern: *“Working hours must be from 8am till 3pm, which will allow one to have enough time for other responsibilities outside work and to live a balanced life”* (? , Stage 1, 18, 21, 17).

7 Research Findings

Usually quantitative studies are generalizable, because the data used has a large sample size. The larger the sample size, the more the researcher is able to generalise, since the statistical power increases (Etikan, 2016; Saunders et al., 2009). As a guide to the matter, Leedy and Ormrod (2005) provide number of units in the sample size based on population (response rate): 100/100, 250/500, 300/1500 and 400/>5000 that is recommended for statistical analysis. As such, a large organization was sought to allow for sufficient sample size for this research to avoid a scenario where full population response is required for sufficient robustness.

M&Ms is an organization of around 591 employees sample size, thus a 50% response rate was targeted for the data analysis to accurately reflect the findings and conclusions (Leedy and Ormrod 2005). The total response rate for the employee's locus of control and happiness at work survey stood at 62% (369/591), and stage of the department in the organizational lifecycle response rate stood at 91% (32/35) by the partners in-charge of the departments. These response rates are calculated after three employee responses were deleted on the basis of duplication of the on-line survey by the employees, and four from the partners' survey. Data from employees in three departments where partners did not reply to the surveys could not be used for correlation analysis with the stage of development of the department leading to the lowest response rate for any analysis in this research to be: 57% (334/591). The response rate was considered satisfactory for reliable data analysis.

Additionally, each departmental response rates are noted in Table 8. Some departments have a greater than 100% response rate which indicates either incorrect department chosen by the employee while completing the survey, completion of the survey by employees in the department multiple times, or incorrect count of employees reported to the researcher. Where identified, such responses were deleted. The reliability of the data analysis per department decreases for department where response rates are further from 100%.

Since level of happiness at work for groups of people is measured through averages of happiness of individuals in the team (Totterdell et al., 1998), the reliability of conclusions from data analysis depends greatly on the standard deviation from the average for the group. Standard deviation is a measure that is used to quantify the amount of variation or dispersion of the average level of happiness at work being reported (Neeman, 2005). A low standard deviation indicates that the employees' level of happiness is close to the average reported, while a high standard deviation indicates that the data points are spread out over a wider range of values, making the average less reliable. This meant that the data for level of engagement being reported is most reliable for Durban Tax, and least reliable for MSSA, and was carefully monitored to avoid skewing of the data analysis.

TABLE 8: RESPONSE RATE BY DEPARTMENT

No.	Department	% response rate
1	Benoni, Accounting/BEE/Company Secretarial/Tax	78%
2	Benoni, Admin	67%
3	Benoni, Audit	44%
4	Cape Town, Accounting/Company Secretarial/Payroll/ Management Services	71%
5	Cape Town, Admin/Finance/HR/PA/IT	54%
6	Cape Town, Advisory	120%
7	Cape Town, Audit	59%
8	Cape Town, Tax	77%
9	Durban, Accounting/HR/Support	33%
10	Durban, Admin/Company Secretarial	83%
11	Durban, Audit	79%
12	Durban, Tax	71%
13	East London, Audit	57%
14	East London, Non-Audit	71%
15	George, Accounting/Entrepreneurial Advisory Services	65%
16	George, External Audit	88%
17	George, Internal Audit	111%
18	George, Support	100%
19	Humansdorp, Accounting	47%
20	Humansdorp, Admin/Support/Tax	68%
21	Humansdorp, Audit	78%
22	Johannesburg, Audit	44%
23	Johannesburg, Non-Audit	60%
24	Lichtenburg, All	109%
25	MSSA	40%
26	Pietermaritzburg, Audit	75%
27	Pietermaritzburg, Non-Audit	100%
28	Port Elizabeth, Accounting/Tax	94%
29	Port Elizabeth, Admin/BEE/Company Secretarial/IT	33%
30	Port Elizabeth, Audit	47%
31	Pretoria, Audit/SAICA	61%
32	Pretoria, Non-Audit	92%
33	Stellenbosch, Better Admin Trust	50%
34	Stellenbosch, Management Services	47%
35	Stellenbosch, VDA Inc.	25%
TOTAL		62%

7.1 Business Lifecycle and Happiness at Work

The null Hypothesis: There is no relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work constructs.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work constructs.

Spearman Rank Order Correlations for stage of development of the department in the organization lifecycle of department and happiness at work constructs are shown in Table 9. It is noted that there is a statistically significant relationship at 1% level for engagement, and at 5% for job satisfaction affective job commitment, but with weak strengths of relationship (β between 0.00 and ± 0.20).

TABLE 9: BUSINESS LIFECYCLE AND HAPPINESS AT WORK CORRELATIONS

Stage of Development	COMMITMENT	ENGAGEMENT	SATISFACTION
Correlation Coefficient	-.125 [*]	-.167 ^{***}	-.122 [*]
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.023	0.002	0.026
N	334	334	334
Stage of development of the department and affective commitment of employee correlation is significant at 0.05 level (significantly correlated) of weak strength (β between 0.00 and ± 0.20).			
Stage of Development of the department and job satisfaction of employee correlation is significant at 0.05 level (significantly correlated) and of weak strength (β between 0.00 and ± 0.20).			

The relationships are illustrated by the graph for comprehension purposes Figure 9, which shows a downward sloping best fit line (negative correlations), illustrating that happiness at work decreases as a department moves along the development stages of an organization's lifecycle; however, the gentle slope of the lines is indicative that the difference between happiness at work in a department in existence stage are not much different than those of an average department in decline.

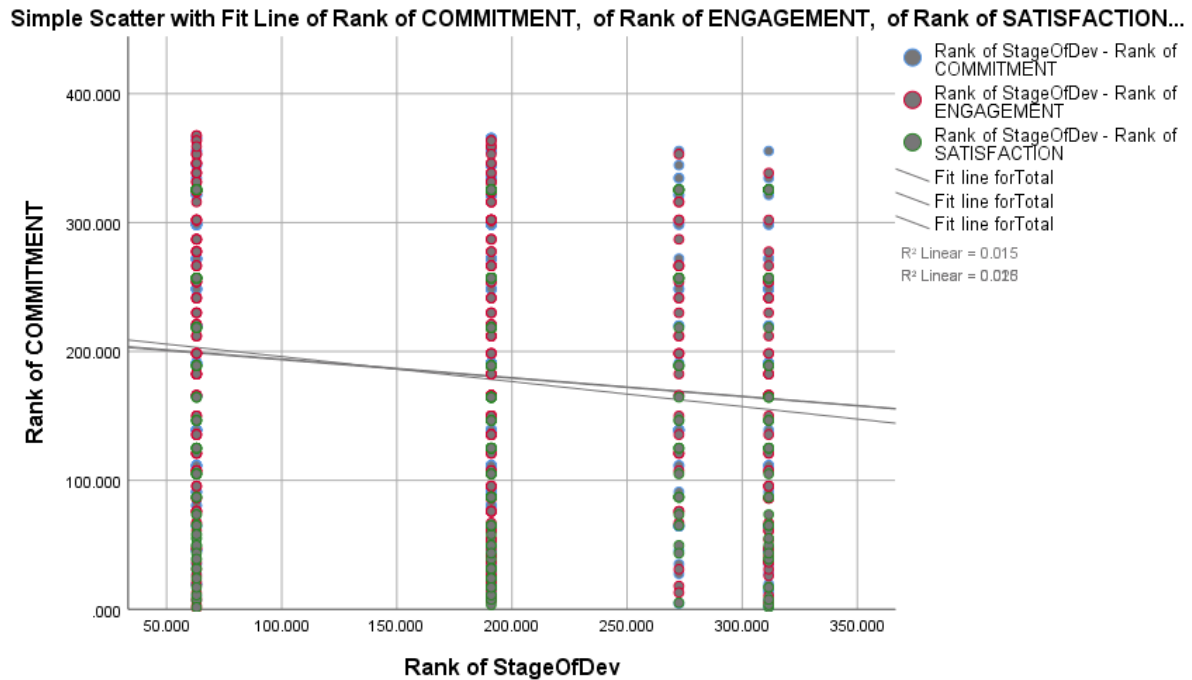


FIGURE 9: BUSINESS LIFECYCLE AND HAPPINESS AT WORK CONSTRUCTS GRAPH

Investigating the same relationship with components of engagement reveals a statistically significant relationship at 1% level for all constructs of engagement, but with weak strengths of relationship (β between 0.00 and ± 0.20) (Table 10).

TABLE 10: BUSINESS LIFECYCLE AND COMPONENTS OF ENGAGEMENT CORRELATIONS

Stage of Development	VIGOR	DEDICATION	ABSORPTION
Correlation Coefficient	-.162**	-.144**	-.146**
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.003	0.009	0.008
N	334	334	334
Stage of development of the department and affective commitment of employee correlation is significant at 0.05 level (significantly correlated) of weak strength (β between 0.00 and ± 0.20).			
Stage of Development of the department and job satisfaction of employee correlation is significant at 0.05 level (significantly correlated) and of weak strength (β between 0.00 and ± 0.20).			

Conclusion: The null hypothesis is rejected. There is a statistically significant relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work constructs. However, due to the weak strength of the relationships, the relationship needs further investigation for enhanced usefulness. As such, this research followed and investigated the relationship using locus of control expectancies of the respondents.

7.2 Locus of Control and Happiness at Work Constructs

The Null Hypothesis: There is no relationship between employees' locus of control expectancy and happiness at work constructs.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a relationship between employees' locus of control expectancy and happiness at work constructs.

Spearman Rank Order Correlations for locus of control and happiness at work constructs are shown in Table 11. There is a statistically significant relationship at 1% level for engagement, and at 5% for job satisfaction affective job commitment, but with weak strengths of relationship (β between 0.00 and ± 0.20).

TABLE 11: LOCUS OF CONTROL AND HAPPINESS AT WORK CONSTRUCTS CORRELATIONS

Locus of Control 0-11	COMMITMENT	ENGAGEMENT	SATISFACTION
Correlation Coefficient	-0.083	-.180**	-.128*
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.123	0.001	0.017
N	349	349	349
Locus of control and affective commitment correlation is insignificant.			
Locus of control and affective engagement correlation is significant at 0.01 level (highly significantly correlated) of weak strength (β between 0.00 and ± 0.20).			
Locus of Control and Satisfaction Correlation is significant at 0.05 level (highly significant correlated) and of weak strength (β between 0.00 and ± 0.20).			

The test shows that internals are statistically more likely to be more engaged at work and exhibit greater job satisfaction than externals; however, the difference in the levels of engagement or job satisfaction between internals and externals are not large enough.

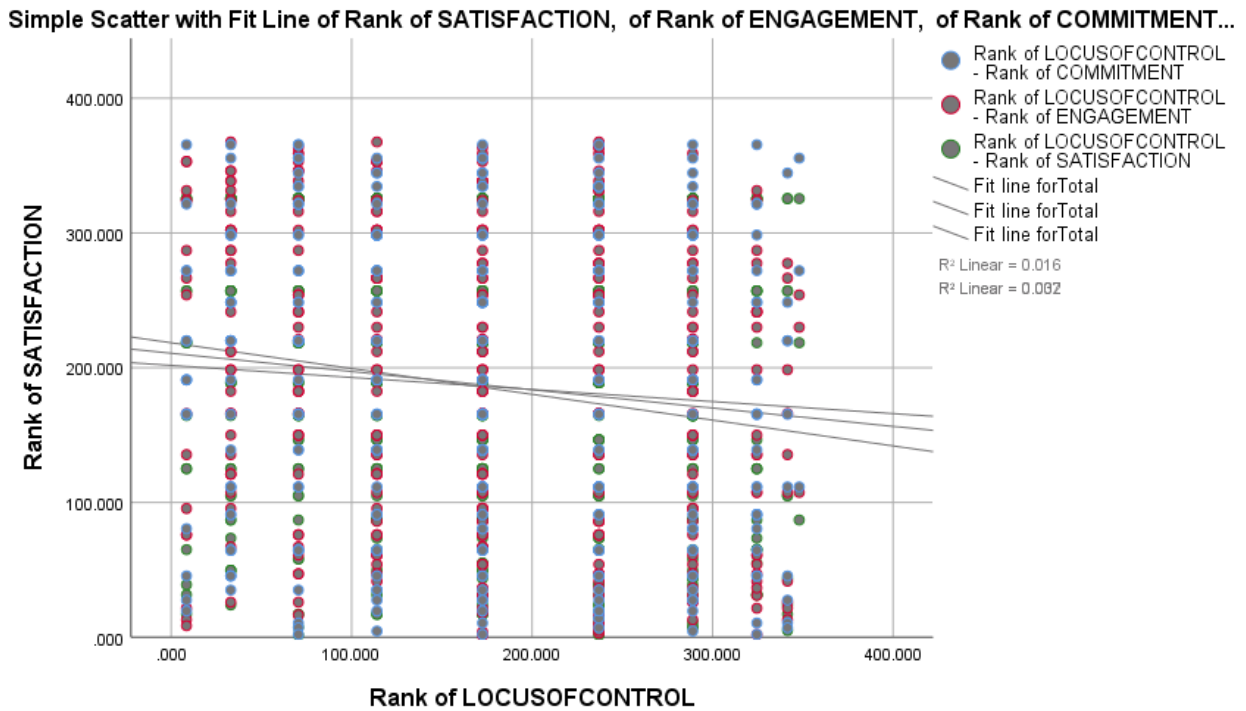


FIGURE 10: LOCUS OF CONTROL AND HAPPINESS AT WORK CONSTRUCTS GRAPH

This is illustrated by Figure 10, which shows a downward sloping best fit line, illustrating that engagement levels and job satisfaction falls as the locus of control rises; however, the gentle slope of the lines is indicative that the difference between engagement level or job satisfaction levels of an internal are not much different than those of an average external.

Similarly, investigating the relationship for the components of engagement (which is concluded that internals are statistically more likely to be more engaged at work) does not reveal any stronger relationship, but retains the 1% statistical significance.

TABLE 12: LOCUS OF CONTROL AND COMPONENTS OF ENGAGEMENT CORRELATIONS

Locus of Control 0-11	VIGOR	DEDICATION	ABSORPTION	ENGAGEMENT
Correlation Coefficient	-.180**	-.176**	-.148**	-.180**
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001	0.001	0.006	0.001
N	349	349	349	349
Locus of control and engagement correlation, and all components of engagement, are significant at 0.01 level (highly significantly correlated) of weak strength (β between 0.00 and ± 0.20).				

Conclusion: The null hypothesis is accepted for affective job commitment. There is no relationship between employees' locus of control expectancy and the construct of affective job commitment contributing to the concept of happiness at work.

The null hypothesis is rejected for job engagement and all its constructs (vigor, dedication and absorption) at 1% significance level. The null hypothesis is also rejected for job satisfaction at 5% significance level. However, due to the weak strength of the relationships, the relationship needs further investigation for enhanced usefulness. As such, this research followed and investigated the relationship by dividing the participants based on their locus of control expectancies.

7.3 Business Lifecycle and Happiness at Work: Testing Locus of Control as a Moderator

The null Hypothesis: Locus of control does not improve the strength of the relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work constructs.

Alternative Hypothesis: Locus of control does improve the strength of the relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work constructs.

TABLE 13: BUSINESS LIFECYCLE AND HAPPINESS AT WORK CONSTRUCTS (MODEL), TESTING FOR LOCUS OF CONTROL (LOC) AS A MODERATOR

Hierarchical Regression Analysis				
		Model	Model + LOC	Change (Sig. F Change)
COMMITMENT	R Squared	0.014	0.019	0.034
	R Squared Adjusted	0.011	0.013	0.046
	Significance	0.034	0.046	0.194
VIGOR	R Squared	0.039	0.062	0.023
	R Squared Adjusted	0.036	0.056	0.020
	Significance	0.000	0.000	0.006
DEDICATION	R Squared	0.026	0.052	0.026
	R Squared Adjusted	0.023	0.046	0.023
	Significance	0.004	0.000	0.004
ABSORPTION	R Squared	0.030	0.047	0.017
	R Squared Adjusted	0.027	0.041	0.014
	Significance	0.002	0.001	0.018
ENGAGEMENT	R Squared	0.039	0.065	0.026
	R Squared Adjusted	0.036	0.059	0.023
	Significance	0.000	0.000	0.004
SATISFACTION	R Squared	0.030	0.045	0.015
	R Squared Adjusted	0.027	0.038	0.011
	Significance	0.002	0.001	0.029

To conduct the analysis which investigates whether the locus of control construct of employees influences the strength of the relationship between the independent variable, the position of the department on the organizational lifecycle, and the dependent variables, the constructs of happiness at work – job satisfaction, affective job commitment and job engagement, a hierarchical regression analysis is conducted (Dr. K. Ramaboa, 5 February 2019, Personal Interview). The results of these are summarized in Table 13 .

Change in R square values are reviewed to check whether the introduction of the variable, locus of control, adds predictability value to the model or decreases the predictability value of the relationship. The R square values are increased in all dependent variables, and the significance levels are retained.

Conclusion: The null hypothesis is rejected. The relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle, and all constructs operating within the umbrella concept of happiness at work and components of job engagement (vigor, dedication and absorption) is improved with the introduction of locus of control of the employee as a moderator variable. As such, locus of control is concluded as a moderator to the relationship.

However, since the predictive value of the model and amended model when locus of control is introduced is fairly low (highest recorded on the table for engagement which is 4% explained by the model, and 7% by the model and locus of control), further analysis is deemed necessary.

7.4 Business Lifecycle and Happiness at Work for Internals and Externals

The Null Hypothesis: There is no relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work constructs for internals/externals.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work constructs for internals/externals.

In investigating the relationship further, this research's participants were split into internals and externals, similar to April et al. (2012). While April et al. (2012) had no responses with a locus of control score of 11, the scholars categorized participants into 0 to 5 as internals, and 5 to 10 as externals. The data for this research showed no respondents with 0 locus of control expectancy, or 11; as such, the data is segregated into 0-5 and 6 to 11 scores as representing internals and externals respectively.

TABLE 14: BUSINESS LIFECYCLE AND HAPPINESS AT WORK CONSTRUCTS FOR INTERNALS AND EXTERNALS CORRELATIONS

Spearman Rank Order Correlation	Locus of Control 0-5	COMMITMENT	ENGAGEMENT	SATISFACTION
Stage of Development	Correlation Coefficient	-0.056	-.142*	-0.132
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.439	0.049	0.069
	N	192	192	192
Stage of development of the department and affective commitment or job satisfaction of employee correlation is insignificant for internals				
Stage of development of the department and engagement of employee correlation is significant at 0.05 level (significantly correlated) of weak strength (β between 0.00 and ± 0.20) for internals.				
Spearman Rank Order Correlation	Locus of Control 6-11	COMMITMENT	ENGAGEMENT	SATISFACTION
Stage of Development	Correlation Coefficient	-.217*	-.218*	-.184*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.016	0.015	0.040
	N	124	124	124
Stage of development of the department and affective commitment and engagement of employee correlation is significant at 0.05 level (significantly correlated) of medium strength (β between 0.20 and ± 0.35) for externals.				
Stage of development of the department and job satisfaction of employee correlation is significant at 0.05 level (significantly correlated) of weak strength (β between 0.00 and ± 0.20) for externals.				

Spearman Rank Order Correlations for stage of development in the organization lifecycle of department and happiness at work constructs are shown in Table 14. It is noted that there are statistically significant correlations between the constructs at 5% level for engagement and affective job commitment, with medium strengths of relationship for externals (β between 0.20 and ± 0.35).

The above analysis is conclusive of the presence of statistical significance at 5% level for externals that the further down the developmental stage of the organization leads to a decreased level of commitment and engagement levels. However, it is inconclusive for internals encourages further analysis of the data to enhance the understanding of the relationship.

Conclusion: The null hypothesis is accepted for internals for affective job commitment and job satisfaction. There is no relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and job commitment and job satisfaction for internals.

The null hypothesis is rejected for job engagement and all its constructs (vigor, dedication and absorption) at 5% significance level. There is a relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and engagement for internals.

The null hypothesis is rejected for externals. There is a relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and all happiness at work constructs for externals at 5% significance level. However, the strengthening of the relationships (7.2 to 7.4) encourages further investigation for enhanced usefulness. As such, this research followed and investigated the relationship by dividing the participants based on their locus of control expectancies into internal, balanced, and external locus of control expectancies.

7.5 Business Lifecycle and Happiness at Work for Internals, Balanced and External Locus of Control Expectancies

The Null Hypothesis: There is no relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work constructs for internals/balanced/external locus of control expectancy.

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work constructs for internal/balanced/external locus of control expectancy.

In investigating the relationship further, the technique to split participants into internals and externals, as by April et al. (2012) was extended further to include a balanced locus of control category. The locus of control scale data (Valecha and Ostrom 1974) was segregated into 0-4 for internals, and 4 to 6 for a balanced locus of control or bi-locals (Torun and April 2006), and 6 to 11 for externals.

The test is conclusive of the presence of statistical significance at 1% level for externals that the further down the developmental stage of the department leads to a decreased level of all constructs contributing to happiness at work. It is conclusive for internals at 5% statistical significance that the further down the developmental stage of the department leads to a decreased level of engagement and job satisfaction. However, there is no relationship between the variables for a balanced locus of control, evidence of the fact that the level of happiness at work is not related to the stage of development of the department along the organizational lifecycle (

Table 15).

TABLE 15: BUSINESS LIFECYCLE AND HAPPINESS AT WORK CONSTRUCTS CORRELATIONS FOR INTERNALS, BALANCED AND EXTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL EXPECTANCIES

Spearman Rank Order Correlation	Locus of Control 0-4	COMMITMENT	ENGAGEMENT	SATISFACTION
Stage of Development	Correlation Coefficient	-0.103	-.206*	-.212*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.258	0.022	0.019
	N	123	123	123
Stage of development of the department and affective commitment of employee correlation is insignificant for internals.				
Stage of development of the department and engagement or job satisfaction of employee correlation is significant at 0.05 level (significantly correlated) of medium strength (β between 0.20 and ± 0.35) for internals.				
Spearman Rank Order Correlation	Locus of Control 4-7	COMMITMENT	ENGAGEMENT	SATISFACTION
Stage of Development	Correlation Coefficient	-0.044	-0.119	-0.085
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.542	0.097	0.237
	N	196	196	196
Stage of development of the department and happiness at work of employee correlation is insignificant for employees with a balanced locus of control.				
Spearman Rank Order Correlation	Locus of Control 7-11	COMMITMENT	ENGAGEMENT	SATISFACTION
Stage of Development	Correlation Coefficient	-.374**	-.352**	-.355**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001	0.002	0.002
	N	75	75	75
Stage of development of the department and happiness at work of employee correlation is significant at 0.01 level (significantly correlated) of strong strength (β between 0.35 and ± 0.50) for externals.				

Spearman Rank Order Correlations for components of engagement are shown in Table 16:

TABLE 16: BUSINESS LIFECYCLE AND COMPONENTS OF ENGAGEMENT CORRELATIONS FOR INTERNALS, BALANCED AND EXTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL EXPECTANCIES

Spearman Rank Order Correlation	Locus of Control 0-4	VIGOR	DEDICATION	ABSORPTION	ENGAGEMENT
Stage of Development	Correlation Coefficient	-.226 [*]	-0.153	-0.163	-.206 [*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.012	0.092	0.071	0.022
	N	123	123	123	123
Stage of development of the department and dedication or absorption of employee correlation is insignificant for internals.					
Stage of development of the department and vigor of employee correlation is significant at 0.05 level (significantly correlated) of medium strength (β between ± 0.20 and ± 0.35 for internals).					
Spearman Rank Order Correlation	Locus of Control 4-7	VIGOR	DEDICATION	ABSORPTION	ENGAGEMENT
Stage of Development	Correlation Coefficient	-0.095	-0.122	-0.100	-0.119
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.187	0.088	0.163	0.097
	N	196	196	196	196
Stage of development of the department and engagement constructs of employee correlation is insignificant for employees with a balanced locus of control expectancy.					
Spearman Rank Order Correlation	Locus of Control 7-11	VIGOR	DEDICATION	ABSORPTION	ENGAGEMENT
Stage of Development	Correlation Coefficient	-.360 ^{**}	-.301 ^{**}	-.295 [*]	-.352 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.002	0.009	0.010	0.002
	N	75	75	75	75
Stage of development of the department and vigor of employee correlation is significant at 0.01 level (highly significantly correlated) of strong strength (β between ± 0.35 and ± 0.5) for externals.					
Stage of development of the department and dedication of employee correlation is significant at 0.01 level (highly significantly correlated) of medium strength (β between ± 0.2 and ± 0.35) for externals.					
Stage of development of the department and vigor of employee correlation is significant at 0.05 level (significantly correlated) of strong strength (β between ± 0.2 and ± 0.35) for externals.					

The analysis is conclusive of the presence of statistical significance at 1% level for externals that the further down the developmental stage of the department leads to a decreased level of all components of engagement. It is conclusive for internals at 5% statistical significance that the further down the developmental stage of the department leads to a decreased level of engagement for internals, driven through lower levels of vigor. However, the null hypothesis is rejected for balanced locus of control. The level of engagement, or any of its components, is not related to the stage of development of the department along the organizational lifecycle.

Conclusion: The null hypothesis is accepted for internals for affective job commitment. There is no relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and affective job commitment for internals.

The null hypothesis is rejected for job engagement and job satisfaction for internals at 5% significance level. There is a relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and job engagement (driven through vigor) and job satisfaction for internals.

The null hypothesis is accepted for those with a balanced locus of control expectancy. There is no relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work (any of its constructs or components) for those with a balanced locus of control expectancy.

The null hypothesis is rejected for externals. There is a relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and all happiness at work constructs for externals at 1% significance level.

The strengthening of the relationships (7.2 to 7.4 to 7.5) encourages further investigation for validating the finding for externals. As such, this research followed and investigated the relationship by changing the scores on the locus of control scale to further validate the findings.

7.6 Business Lifecycle and Happiness at Work for Externals

The Null Hypothesis: There is no relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work constructs for externals (I-E scores 6-11/7-11/8-11).

Alternative Hypothesis: There is a relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and happiness at work constructs for externals (I-E scores 6-11/7-11/8-11).

In light of the strong relationship at 1% significance level for externals between the stage of development and the level of happiness at work, further analysis is conducted to ensure the findings are valid, and confirm the conclusion by conducting the analysis at different score levels for externals on the abbreviated locus of control I-E scale (Valecha and Ostrom 1974).

TABLE 17: BUSINESS LIFECYCLE AND HAPPINESS AT WORK CONSTRUCTS CORRELATIONS FOR VARIED SCORES OF EXTERNALS

Spearman Rank Order Correlation	Locus of Control 6-11	COMMITMENT	ENGAGEMENT	SATISFACTION
Stage of Development	Correlation Coefficient	-.217 [*]	-.218 [*]	-.184 [*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.016	0.015	0.040
	N	124	124	124
Stage of development of the department and happiness at work of employee correlation is significant at 0.05 level (significantly correlated) of weak (β between 0 and ± 0.20) or medium strength (β between 0.2 and ± 0.35) for externals defined through 7-11 or 8-11 locus of control scale score.				
Spearman Rank Order Correlation	Locus of Control 7-11	COMMITMENT	ENGAGEMENT	SATISFACTION
Stage of Development	Correlation Coefficient	-.374 ^{**}	-.352 ^{**}	-.355 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001	0.002	0.002
	N	75	75	75
Spearman Rank Order Correlation	Locus of Control 8-11	COMMITMENT	ENGAGEMENT	SATISFACTION
Stage of Development	Correlation Coefficient	-.469 ^{**}	-.336 [*]	-.372 [*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.004	0.049	0.028
	N	35	35	35
Stage of development of the department and happiness at work of employee correlation is significant at 0.01 level (highly significantly correlated) of strong strength (β between 0.35 and ± 0.50) for externals defined through 7-11 or 8-11 locus of control scale score.				

Presence of statistical significance at 1% level for externals illustrates that the further down the developed stages of the department on the organizational lifecycle, the decreased is the level of all constructs contributing to happiness at work. This relationship is strengthened with higher the levels of externality.

Conclusion: The null hypothesis is rejected for externals. There is a relationship between the department's position on the organizational lifecycle and all happiness at work constructs for externals at 1% significance level, that strengthens with increasing externality (

Table 17).

7.7 Summary of Quantitative Analysis

Spearman Rank Order Correlations reveal that there is a statistically significant relationship between stage of development in the organizational lifecycle and work engagement at 1% significance, and at 5% significance for job satisfaction, with no relationship for job commitment (for all expectancies). Similarly, the findings are summarized for internal, balanced and external locus of control expectancies (Table 18).

TABLE 18: SUMMARY OF QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

Locus of Control		COMMITMENT	ENGAGEMENT (Vigor, Dedication, Absorption)	SATISFACTION	OLC v HAW Relationship
Internals (0-4 score)	β	-0.103✖	-0.206*✓ (-0.226*✓, -0.153✖, -0.163✖)	-0.212*✓	?
	p	0.258	0.022 (0.012, 0.092, 0.071)	0.019	
	N	123	123	123	
Balanced (4 to 7 score)	β	-0.044	-0.119 (-0.095, -0.122, -0.100)	-0.085	✖
	p	0.542	0.097 (-0.187, -0.088, -0.163)	0.237	
	N	196	196	196	
Externals (7 to 11 score)	β	-0.374**	-0.352** (-0.360** -0.301** -0.295**)	-0.355**	✓ Strong
	p	0.001	0.002 (-0.002, -0.009, -0.010)	0.002	
	N	75	75	75	
All (0 to 11)	β	-0.125*✓	-0.167**✓ (-0.162**✓ -0.144**✓ -0.146**✓)	-0.146*✓	✓ weak
	p	0.023	0.002 (-0.003, -0.009, -0.008)	0.017	
	N	334	334	334	

Key for Table 18	
Null hypothesis accepted – no relationship	✖
Null hypothesis rejected – there is a relationship	✓
Inconclusive relationship	?
5% significance level	*

1% significance level	**
β (strength of the relationship)	#
Organizational lifecycle	OLC
Happiness at work	HAW

7.8 Qualitative Analysis

As a part of the survey of the employees that required completion of academically-validated constructs under the concept of happiness at work, the employees were also provided the opportunity to comment on any aspect of the survey regarding their level of happiness at work. This open-ended question allowed free scope for comments, for which 54 responses were received. In analysing the comments, few themes emerge of the reasons for, or for a lack of happiness at work. These are discussed below:

7.8.1 Workload

An employee subtly highlights the stress associated with workload using euphemism, by stating: *"Sometimes can be stressful"* (balanced, stage 1, 27, 45, 23). Work stressors, which refer to taxing aspects of a job, include: employee workload, interpersonal conflict, and organizational constraints (Gray-Stanley et al., 2010). Researchers have also investigated the relationship between job characteristics and perceived job stress. Workload, fluctuations in the amount of work demanded at different times, and the amount of control or discretion an individual has over the work process have all been linked to perceived job stress (Lucas and Diener 2003). Experienced workload and time pressure are strongly and consistently related to burnout (Demerouti et al., 2010), particularly the exhaustion dimension. This pattern is found with both self-reports of experienced strain and more objective measures of demands (such as number of hours worked and number of clients) (Maslach et al., 2001).

The most frequent comment involved workload experienced by the employees. A total of 18 respondents (33%) highlighted concerns regarding the matter. One respondent with an unknown locus of control expectancy expresses the lack of work-life balance by demanding: *"Working hours must be from 8am till 3pm, which will allow one to have enough time for other responsibilities outside work and to live a balanced life"* (?, Stage 1, 18, 21, 17). Locus of control is known to be a moderator for between stress and workload (Gray-Stanley et al., 2010), the comments below follow an analysis of the theme based on the respondent's locus of control expectancy:

A respondent with an external locus of control expectancy clearly linked the issue of overwork with mental health (Gray-Stanley et al., 2010) by stating: *"Just in a bad place mentally from being overworked"* (7, stage 1, 16, 30, 13). Another external demanded to: *"Have more time to complete work on audits"* (external, stage 1, 20, 24, 8). Similarly, another respondent with an external locus of control expectancy states: *"More time on audits, more staff, better management of audits"* (7, stage 2, 28, 35, 5), linking

workload to resource constraints (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), planning, and management issues (Hashim, 2010).

Similar comments were noted from employees with a balanced locus of control. *"I enjoy my job thoroughly. The only problem I have is other people not keeping to deadlines and not taking my time into consideration"* (balanced, stage 3, 25, 45, 23), highlighting management of personal time to be a concern during high workload periods. Similar to the respondent, another two respondent with a balanced locus of control highlights the lack of concern for the employees which allows the department to be: *"completely deadline driven, with little consideration from clients with submission of work to me and expect it to be completed no matter what"* (balanced, stage 1, 16, 28, 18), *"entirely deadline driven and dependant on information submitted by clients therefore often placed under intense time constraints"* (balanced, stage 1, 20, 30, 20).

Identically for internals, one respondent states: *"Enjoy the job, but workload to[o] much"* (internal, stage 2, 25, 33, 20). Mentioning the enjoyment in the job, but the stressor of workload, another employee with an internal locus of control mentions: *"I am content in my working environment. As much as there are days that can be hectic with deadlines, overall it is an enjoyable environment in which I am able to learn and grow on a daily basis. It feels good to be a [] part of a great team"* (internal, stage 1, 25, 45, 24). Similarly, yet another internal mentions the concern in same pattern of firstly recognizing enjoyment of the job, and then sharing the concern about work-load: *"I love my job but sometimes the workload is just to[o] much and the cold aircons [are] not nice"* (internal, stage 2, 29, 45, 24). The mention of positivity towards the job with the complaint of workload by internals continues, with another internal respondent mentioning that he/she loves the job post the concern raised about work-load: *"A lot of overtime sometimes gets overwhelming and that it is sometimes expected that we work in our own time without consulting with us first. Overall[,] I love the job and everything that comes with it. We have really caring management who are always understanding and supportive. I learn a lot on a daily basis and am constantly inspired to think outside of the box"* (internal, stage 1, 28, 50, 24). Another employee with an internal locus of control expectancy mentions: *"I love my job[;] however I do feel that some change is needed with regards to job allocation and budgets"*. Though not clearly stating a love for the job as many others, yet one internal respondent recognizes that the workload has a silver lining to professional development: *"The audit environment is a stressful one with deadlines and managing trainees[;] however[,] it teaches you to learn and develop daily"* (4, stage 1, 26, 45, 23).

It is found that all internals mention the positivity of the job along with the workload issue: *"The environment is great, although the pressure of working overtime all the time makes it unbearable and straining on a personal level"* (internal, stage 2, 15, 33, 13). While this respondent gives credit to the work environment, there are some that are very negative in respect of the workload in their comments, yet still recognize positivity in their comment such as: *"In the current department and the current location there is a lack of human resources and an excess of work which forces audit work to be done in shorter*

periods of time with less resources. I dislike the current office to such an extent that I would like to leave. I love auditing and all that it entails. Dissatisfaction comes from being expected to perform the work of 2-3 people within a 40-hour week“ (internal, stage 1, 15, 26, 4). Despite a clear indication that the respondent wants to exit the firm, the love of the profession is mentioned in the comments.

While the concern of workload and its negative impact on happiness at work is shared by employee of all expectancies, the nature of the comments reveals that internals recognize other matters that may be positive while raising the concern regarding workload. Externals flatly demand a decrease in workload (Gray-Stanley et al., 2010). Additionally, those with a balanced locus of control seem to regard the workload concern as a lack of care by the leadership. While qualitative research, unlike the quantitative research discussed before, is not deductive, the trend found is illustrative of the fact that locus of control expectancy can lead to differences in perception of the problem a shared problem across the firm that effects levels of happiness at work for the employees. Due to their energizing potential, challenge stressors such as workload and time pressure have the ability to boost work engagement and attentiveness (Sonnetag, 2015). There may be an indication in the comments that internals embrace workload as an enabler for engagement at work, while other expectancies do not show a tendency to do so.

A possible solution to the workload concern was presented by one employee with an unknown expectancy who stated: *“I’d like better communication from the top to people on the ground, which will help with better planning”* (?, Stage 3, 19, 37, 19) as previously mentioned by an external also. Unsurprisingly, workloads are predicted in resource capacity planning systems to select the best plans in organizations to mitigate such concerns from employees (Adkins, 2006).

7.8.1.1 Leadership

Leadership style is known to bear an impact on the levels of work engagement, better life satisfaction and lower levels of burnout (Harju, Schaufeli, & Hakanen, 2018). For example, servant leaders emphasise personal growth and development in their followers, and thereby empower them (Rodriguez, 2010); hence, encouraging positivity associated with the organization and work. Marques’ (2013) research exploring admirable leadership skills highlights its ability in creating a more stimulating and inspirational work environment, and encouraging job crafting in teams, and mitigate the level of job boredom (Emolument, 2017).

In respect of leadership in the departments in the firms, one internal respondent states: *“In an Audit firm[,] the department manager determines the mood”* (internal, stage 1, 24, 49, 24). Employees of all expectancies have regarded this as an important factor contributing to or hindering happiness at work. With 10 (19%) respondents referring to the matter, it is the second most prevalent factor mentioned as influencing happiness at work.

A respondent with an external locus of control expectancy appreciates the leadership and attributes it to lead to his/her happiness at work by stating: *“The partners and staff at my firm are amazing, they are supportive, understanding and believe in me. They actually care and look after me”* (external, stage 2, 30, 48, 24). Similarly, another respondent with external expectancy expresses his/her frustration due to leadership by stating: *“The inconsistency[ies] in the rules are very frustrating, e.g. some people disappear/arrive late and don't work in the time with no consequences”* (7, stage 5, 26, 45, 23)

Similar comments are noted from participants with a balanced locus of control expectancy: *“My department's work environment and leadership style is[are] great. I don't think you would get this anywhere else in the finance/corporate world”* (balanced, stage 1, 22, 29, 16). On the contrary, a complaint about a manager's leadership is seen to have a profound impact on the level of happiness at work, job satisfaction in particular, for one balanced locus of control respondent: *“My job in general is not bad, but my manager makes it unenjoyable. [I]t is hard to work with someone who is never constant. I don[']t feel motivated to work for someone who treats you bad and unprofessional[ly.] It has a direct effect on my work. I know I can ask to move to a[n]other team, but nothing stays confidential and if I[']m not moved he will only treat me worse”* (4, stage?, 15, 33, 6).

Similar comments complementing the leadership and criticism thereof are noted from those with an internal expectancy. One respondent stated: *“Management need to make good on their promises. If questionnaires are taken, management need to do something about the feedback”* (internal, stage 2, 20, 34, 18) alluding towards leadership concerns, expressing higher demands of the leadership. On the contrary, another employee with an internal expectancy states: *“Having to answer only to the directors, makes my job enjoyable. Working alongside our receptionist makes it even better”* (internal, stage 1, 30, 48, 23).

The lowest score for the happiness at work constructs in the entire firm is noted from an employee with an internal locus of control expectancy who states: *“Our firm is racially discriminating. Management and Partners do not award equal opportunities, but base work allocation on who they like. Management and Partners have no empathy or understanding for our struggles, health or personal issues”* (internal, stage 5, 8, 23, 0) The personality trait of the said employee was tested against propensity to expect racial bias (Harell, Soroka, & Iyengar, 2017). It was concluded that the employee does not bear the locus of control trait associated with susceptibility to claims of racial bias (Valentine, Silver, & Twigg, 1999). However, it highlights that perception of unfair treatment can lead to a dramatic impact on the levels of happiness at work for employees.

Another employee with an unknown locus of control expectancy lists a host of concerns, among which is feeling not being cared for, which does not promote happiness at work: *“Love my job, but unhappy doing it because of stress factors like work overload, getting no help, no chance to grow, environment not nice to promote a feeling of well-being, cared for”* (?, Stage 1, 15, 39, 8).

It is noted that leadership concerns or appreciation is mentioned more frequently by internals and externals than by those with a balanced locus of control expectancy.

7.8.2 Training

The third most commented matter in the survey was regarding training, with nine comments (17%) alluding towards its importance in one way or another. While the aspect is recognized as universally important for job satisfaction (van Saane, 2003), it is more important in organizations that provide a learning and career platform, as it is an objective of the employees to embark on this growth and an expectation from the organization.

With a focus on this ambition in accounting firms that train employees to qualify for professional accountancy bodies, learning from the job, or training, appears to have the effect of increasing resilience, or tolerance, towards matters which influence the level of an employee's happiness at work negatively. As remarked by the employee with an external expectancy, there is a clear link in the mind of employees between learning and happiness at work: *"It['s] great when you learn new and exciting things in your industry in order to keep your job satisfaction at bay"* (7, stage 5, 21, 38, 18)

Employees with a balanced locus of control expectancy and with highest level of happiness at work at the firm states: *"I am so grateful for being given this opportunity to work for [M&Ms] Pdb EL. I am so passionate about my job and I have learned so much and still do. I have the best bosses and colleagues"* (balanced, stage?, 30, 54, 21). Similarly, is shared by others of a balanced expectancy: *"Regarding the field – auditing can be enjoyable as it is a field in which you challenge yourself as well as learn so much"* (balanced, stage 3, 15, 33, 10). Another employee with a balanced locus of control expectancy states: *"The audit environment is a stressful one with deadlines and managing trainees[;] however[,] it teaches you to learn and develop daily"* (4, stage 1, 26, 45, 23).

In contrast to the above, comments from internals on the matter reflect on a lack of training or competence of others. Similar is shared by an employee regarding the dealings with external parties: *"Coping with SARS [South African Revenue Service] is a nightmare. Dealing with incompetence is frustrating"* (?, Stage 1, 17, 9, 4). One employee with an internal locus of control demands: *"More training should be given to new trainees. I feel that for the first 6 months of articles the trainees need to be solely involved in accounting before they begin working on Caseware"* (4, stage 3, 25, 42, 18). One comment has also been noted regarding this from an employee with a balanced locus of control expectancy: *"It's really frustrating correcting work that comes from a senior manager most of the time"* (balanced, stage?, 12, 23, 15). Similarly, the competence concerns of working with the tax authorities is accompanied with a smile from the respondent with a balanced locus of control: *"Working with tax is always a challenge:)"* (balanced, stage 2, 24, 32, 18)

While the link between narcissism and internality is inductive in research (April et al., 2011), the relationship between locus of control and self-efficacy is long documented (Marks, 1998 citing Wong and Sproule 1984). The preference to highlight the need for other's training over enjoyment of one's own is clear from the comments from those with internal locus of control expectancy.

7.8.3 Team

Since workload is the most frequently mentioned concern from employees in respect of their happiness at work in the survey, it's interaction with other factors is important to note. For example, Hakanen et al. (2005) tested this interaction in a sample of Finnish dentists employed in the public sector. It was found that job resources (e.g. variability in the required professional skills and peer contacts) are most beneficial in maintaining work engagement under conditions of high job demands (e.g. workload, or unfavourable physical environment). (Bakker and Demerouti 2008). The importance of peer contacts or team in which the participants operate to their happiness at work is abundantly evident from the comments.

A respondent with an external expectancy states: *"Negative influence/atmosphere in office"* (7, stage 2, 18, 39, 20) as a reason for his/her low level of happiness at work. Another external regards this to be the reason behind him/her being happy at work: *"I love my clerk colleagues, they make it worthwhile"* (7, Stage 2, 18, 18, 14).

Similarly, is noted from those with a balanced expectancy. One participant states: *"I really enjoy my team and work..."* (balanced, stage 1, 19, 31, 24), another stating: *"I love the people in my department, they make the work worthwhile"* (balanced, stage 2, 20, 34, 14). One respondent with a balanced locus of control expectancy raves about the atmosphere in the office by claiming: *"I have never worked for a company with a pleasant atmosphere quite like this one"* (balanced, stage 2, 28, 52, 24). Internals have commented similarly to the matter, with one respondent stating: *"Need a bit more working as team, not individualism. Else, it is good and challenging"* (4, stage 3, 27, 36, 16), and another requesting: *"I would like everyone to work together as a team. To assist each other where possible as we are all here to achieve the same goal"* (internal, stage 1, 24, 51, 22).

Yet again, comments from internals have a different tone to the comments from other expectancies. Internals are noted to be more critical of the team, and along with the comments noted regarding demands from leadership, and competence and training of colleagues, appear more demanding than other expectancies in their tone of mentioning comments that bear the same or similar theme to those with an external or a balanced locus of control expectancy.

Lastly, an employee with an unknown expectancy states: *"I love the work itself, trying to concentrate to do the work is mostly a problem. I feel we cannot be productive because doing work that is wasting my time,*

no one to help, noise levels, etc” (?, Stage 2, 20, 36, 14), highlighting that a cohesive team assists to avoid scenarios where the employees feel that there is no one to help.

7.8.4 Career

In reference to person-organization fit, and person-job fit, while the earlier is known to have greater impact on happiness at work (Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001), a focus on the job is also clearly of importance to happiness at work for employees. An employee with an unknown locus of control expectancy states a host of matters influencing his/her happiness at work, including importance of career progression: *“Love my job, but unhappy doing it because of stress factors like work overload, getting no help, no chance to grow, environment not nice to promote a feeling of well-being, cared for”* (?, Stage 1, 15, 39, 8), highlighting the importance of career growth to the employee.

All the respondents that have raised a concern about career progression have a balanced or an internal locus of control expectancy, with one internal stating the purpose of the audit clerks as career progression by stating: *“For the majority of clerks[,] audit is a means to advance our careers”* (internal, stage 2, 16, 29, 20). Another employee with an internal locus of control states: *“I hate my job because I have to do audits 99% of the time when I am actually in the Accounting/tax department. If I wanted to do auditing[,] I would have been doing SAICA, but favouritism and nepotism [...]”* (internal, stage 1, 14, 17, 9). A respondent with a balanced locus of control expectancy states: *“[I] feel that my job lacks depth or meaning – it[']s very administrative I get that and I was warned about it[,] but I feel like I am not be[ing] stretched or used for my capabilities. I have much more to offer[,] I feel!”* (balanced, stage 1, 11, 23, 19); thus, highlighting the importance of a challenging job to the respondent’s levels of happiness at work.

With the limited scope to respond to the open-ended enquiry, externals did not raise the concern of person-job fit, or a chosen career preference as their top concerns regarding happiness at work for them.

7.8.5 Recognition

Following on from leadership and the impact of perceived unfairness, the theme of recognition for effort and calibre was noted as important for happiness at work by several participants.

The depressive tone is evident in one respondent with an unknown locus of control expectancy who states: *“After 25 years it is difficult to get too excited any more, especially if you got nowhere with all the hard work spanning more than two decades and all you see for that is constant changes in directors, but getting nowhere myself”* (?, Stage 1, 22, 31, 5). Another participant with a balanced locus of control applauds the team, but highlights the need for recognition, which is again linked to the level of perceived care from leaders towards the employees as mentioned frequently in workload concerns raised in the earlier section: *“I really enjoy my team and work. I sometimes wish for greater recognition and more interest in people than the money”* (balanced, stage 1, 19, 31, 24). Similar is stated by another employee with balanced expectancy stating: *“Employees are the biggest asset. I feel the company doesn't listen to what its*

employees have to say” (balanced, stage 2, 18, 24, 6). Yet another employee with balanced expectancy states: “Appreciation for work done, communication between staff and levels of management[,] and appreciation for staff[,] and [emphasis on] staff satisfaction would go a long in improving the current vibe of the atmosphere of the company at current” (balanced, stage 1, 15, 45, 21).

The above, together with the section regarding workload, illustrates the need for recognition and care required for employees with balanced locus of control expectancy is higher than expressed by those with internal or external expectancies.

7.8.6 Pay

Forming the cognitive element of job satisfaction and contributing towards happiness at work, benefits and work remuneration have been the price concern for some respondents. One employee with an internal locus of control expectancy states: *“Please offer market related salaries and benefits” (internal, stage 1, 29, 41, 18), and another states: “We do not get a 13th cheque. Looking for jobs with 13th cheque” (internal, stage 2, 28, 31, 21). Similarly, those with external locus of control expectancy states his/her wish to: “... Receive more benefits (Pension, medical, travel claim etc.)” (external, stage 1, 20, 24, 8).*

7.8.7 Personality

Some employees clearly link their happiness at work with their personality trait, or to their determination to make the most of it. One participant with an internal locus of control states: *“My job may not seem like much to most people[,] but I am the type of person that believes that anything I do must be done to the best of my abilities” (internal, stage 1, 25, 48, 24), and another internal states: “My work is the best” (internal, stage 1, 30, 50, 24). Externals seem to state similar, but with reference to third party: “Most times, how happy you are in your job depends on your happiness too and what you make of it” (7, stage 1, 29, 43, 24).*

7.9 Summary of Qualitative Data Analysis

“I enjoy my job at my outmost...Love it, no complains” (balanced, stage 2, 23, 50, 23).

It is expected that when limited to three points to contribute towards the study, the input from the participants who have completed the happiness at work survey would allow them some self-reflection into providing the most important antecedents to their level of happiness in the department due to this limit.

Few themes emerge from the comments which are consistent with the literature review (van Saane, 2003). The most common comment was regarding ‘workload’, followed by ‘leadership’ matters and ‘training’ or learning opportunities at work. Generally, workload is most directly related to the exhaustion aspect of burnout. The demand–control model claims that job control, or autonomy, may buffer the influence of workload on strain; whereas, the effort–reward imbalance model states that rewards (in terms of salary, esteem reward, and security/career opportunities, i.e., promotion prospects, job security, and status consistency) may buffer the influence of effort (extrinsic job demands and intrinsic motivation to meet

these demands) on strain (Bakker et al., 2007). People may be willing to tolerate a mismatch in workload if they receive praise and good pay, work well with their colleagues, or if they feel or are made to feel that their work is valuable and important. The factor noted to buffer the employees from work exhaustion is noted as training or learning. While more specific to organizations that allow for career progression or qualifications, the finding is relevant to the model, and closely linked to ‘promotion prospects’ noted in the research.



FIGURE 11: ANTECEDENTS OF HAPPINESS AT WORK IDENTIFIED FROM QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS (% OF EMPLOYEES/TOTAL NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES WHO COMMENTED)

Aspects of the team also contributed to the comments made. Other comments related to career progression, recognition or pay concerns, with also comments applauding the respondent’s own personality for the level of happiness at work. Figure 11 illustrates all the themes emerging in their respective order of frequency.

In reviewing the locus of control expectancy of the participants making the comments, differences are noted to arise based on differing expectancies of the employees. For example, it was noted that all comments regarding career growth as important aspect of happiness at work came from internals or from those with a balanced locus of control expectancy, with no comments on the matter from those with external expectancy. Higher comments regarding leadership arose from internals and externals, compared with employees with a balanced locus of control. These differences illustrate the importance of some antecedents to happiness at work for certain expectancies over others.

Not only in terms of frequency, but the nature of the comments from different expectancies varied. For example, comments regarding training, personal growth and learning was seen as important factors by external and those with balanced locus of control expectancy, but the comments regarding training by

internals seem to be focused of a lack of calibre of personnel which leads them to be frustrated. The tone of complaints towards others continues in the theme of 'leadership' and the 'team' from internals. However, in respect of 'workload', internals are noted to accompany the complaint of a high workload with a positive aspect of having high levels of workload (e.g. personal growth), or an unrelated aspect of work to workload; such as, the work environment, while externals clearly view it as a hindrance to their level of happiness at work. Similarly, none of the externals commented towards the theme of 'career', possibly indicating the lack of importance of the matter to them.

In a discussion about autonomy and union as two opposite drives for humans, an environment of interdependence (union) allows for externals to be happy while autonomy facilitated internals to be happier (Morling & Fiske, 1999). As such, in conclusion, the inductive study conducted alludes towards the fact that happiness at work for internals, externals, and those with a balanced locus of control expectancy seems to arise from some generalized factors. However, these are noted not to be evenly distributed amongst the expectancies. Some factors tend to contribute to happiness at work for internals while others assist externals to be happier at work.

8 Discussion

8.1 Happiness at Work along the Business Lifecycle - the role of Locus of Control

Locus of control (Rotter, 1966) has been academically discussed for half a century; as such, research on the topic has matured. Nonetheless, it is impressive that new correlations are found with this personality trait construct till date. For example, in respect of topics of relevance currently; such as, happiness (David and Singh 2016; Ramezani and Gholtash 2015; April et al. 2012), and attitude towards immigration (Harell et al., 2017), research conducted using this personality trait has revealed significant correlations. It is for this reason that Judge et al. (2008) regarded it as a core self-evaluation trait, highlighting it to be fundamental to human behaviour.

While initially the abundance of Western literature allocated best attributes of a personality to internality (Hiers and Heckel 1977; Anderson and Schneier 1978; Andrisani and Nestel 1976; Lee-Kelley 2006), the view has been challenged (April et al. 2011; Hyatt and Prawitt 2001; Littunen and Storhammar 2000), and the concept of best-fit based on the environment has been introduced to the personality trait (Wijbenga and Witteloostuijn 2007; Kroeck et al. 2010) particularly when investigated in respect of entrepreneurship (Kaufmann et al., 1995).

The research conducted has extended this enquiry to the entire business lifecycle (Quinn and Cameron 1983; Adizes 1979; Lester et al. 2003). While profits, performance and success may be the traditional bottom-line business and work objectives, the correlation between happiness and performance is well

established (Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, 2005; Oswald, Proto, & Sgroi, 2015; Walsh, Boehm, & Lyubomirsky, 2018; Zelenski et al., 2008), with confirmation that happiness as the independent variable and success and the dependent variable (Walsh et al., 2018), meaning that happiness at work precedes success in a job. As such, the relationship of happiness at work and stages of development along the organization was researched. This research is conducted in 35 departments within a national organization with different locations based on the concept that each department can be positioned at one out of five stages of the business lifecycle (Adizes and Naiman 1988; Lester et al. 2003). The researcher believes this is particularly true when each department acts as a business unit, as many departments in accounting firms do: corporate secretarial, tax and audit departments and even specialized consultancy.

It is concluded that a statistically significant, but weak, relationship between happiness at work and the department's stage of development on the business lifecycle exists, with a preference towards departments that are early in the stages of development: smaller in size, controlled by the founder or partner in-charge, with a simple structure and simple, and informal information processing. The negative correlations found indicate that such departments harbour higher levels of happiness at work (Fisher, 2010), based on constructs of job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, and engagement levels. Dividing the respondents into their respective locus of control expectancies reveals that externals are most sensitive to this preference, having their level of happiness at work strongly correlated to the stage at which their department is positioned on the business lifecycle. The correlation stands for all constructs of the concept of happiness at work (job satisfaction, affective job commitment, and all components of job engagement: vigor, dedication and absorption). Internals show similar relationship, of a moderate strength, but for the level of vigor component of engagement, engagement as a whole, and job satisfaction only. Those with a balanced locus of control expectancy show no correlation with the stage of development of the department for any construct under happiness at work examined, or any component of engagement.

Externals with their belief that their happiness is dependent on factors outside their personal control (Carrim, 2006), either with powerful others, on chance, luck, or fate, or attributed to complexity of the world (Lefcourt, 1976a) are inclined to be sensitive to external forces and the environment for personal level of happiness in the work environment. Belief in control by powerful others can be due to the individual's belief of being physically or intellectually weaker than others around them. Therefore, for these individuals, externality is defined through the competitive environment, or differential perceived power in a social milieu. It is therefore explanatory of their sensitivity to the departmental characteristics. Work-related sources of social support, more associated with smaller departments, and proximity to leaders which are seen as powerful dictators of their fate and the environment by externals, have been found to be closely associated with exhaustion (Halbesleben, 2006). It is expected that externals are more inclined to respond to this as a stimulus to their level of happiness at work.

Though to a less extent than externals, the preference towards earlier stages in the organizational lifecycle persists in internals. The construct contributing to this is engagement, by the component of vigor. As

such, on average, internals are likely to feel the difference in their energy level when placed departments with differing positions on the organizational lifecycle. On the contrary, internals with their belief of strong association between their actions and consequences interpret reinforcements they receive at work as contingent upon their own actions (Lee-Kelley, 2006). It can be expected that attribution of consequences to their actions are increasingly subdued in larger departments, or more structured environments, that fail to provide them with the reinforcement of their actions that they anticipate due to their expectancy. Additionally, a desire to control inherent in internals may not be feasible, possible or even permitted as the organization or department progresses towards more developed stages of the organizational lifecycle due to more structured work environment. Hyatt's (2001) research indicates that supervisor-assessed job performance is positively associated with the "fit" between individual auditors' locus of control and the employing firm's audit structure, with internals preferring less structured audit environment than externals. It can be expected that similar to performance, the level of happiness at work for internals is also greater in less structured departmental environments, which are associated with early stage of the organizational lifecycle.

The interaction of the two polar opposites of internality and externality which leads to a bi-local (Torun and April 2006) or a balanced locus of control expectancy (April et al., 2012) is not well understood (S. Connolly, 1980). It is expected that perception of control are a collaboration of situation-specific expectancies that vary from one life function to another (Lefcourt, 1976b); such as, work locus of control (Spector, 1988) which is an expectancy specific to the work environment or health locus of control (Reynaert et al., 1995) which is specific to generalized expectancy of an individual in respect to their health. An individual may be an internal in respect of one situation specific expectancy, and external for another, leading to a balanced generalized locus of control expectancy. This makes explaining the lack of correlation is more difficult due to this multitude of contributors to the generalized expectancy. Nonetheless, the resilience of a balanced locus of control to the work environment is evident in the lack of any correlations with any constructs of happiness at work or any components of engagement at work. This finding is supported by the fact that the highest subjective well-being (Diener et al., 1985) was found to be associated with a balanced locus of control expectancy by April, Dharani and Kai (2012).

8.2 Factors Affecting Happiness at Work

The antecedents of constructs of happiness at work found in the qualitative analysis closely resemble those discussed in the literature review, with most being on the list can be antecedents of job satisfaction by Saane et al. (2003). The comment that some attribute their happiness at work to their own personality or cognitive effort to be happy at work is an addition to the list. Due to the low number of such comments, the significance of the factor is contestable.

More relevant findings were discovered when separating the comments from internals, bi-locals or those with a balanced locus of control expectancy, and externals in an attempt to contribute to new knowledge creation.

While employees seem to express their concern regarding the stressor, ‘workload’, regardless of their expectancies, segregating the comments from the different expectancies reveals mention of a positive attribute with the workload by internals, such as: *“I love my job but sometimes the work load is just to[o] much”* (internal, stage 2, 25, 33, 20), and a blatant need from decrease in the stressor is demanded by externals, evident from comments such as: *“Just in a bad place mentally from being over[]worked”* (7, stage 1, 16, 30, 13).

With ‘leadership’ concerns or complements found to be the second most important factor for employees in general, further analysis revealed that the level of importance seems higher for both externals and internals than those with a balance locus of control expectancy. This is possibly explained by the fact that individuals with an external locus of control expectancy depend of powerful others; thus, allowing their level of happiness to also be dictated by leaders, who are powerful others in their spectrum (Lefcourt, 1976a). *“The partners and staff at my firm are amazing, they are supportive, understanding and believe in me. They actually care and look after me”* (external, stage 2, 30, 48, 24). On the contrary, internals, who are attributed to personally embody leadership qualities in plentiful Western academic literature (Anderson and Schneier 1978), also ranked leadership (Harju et al., 2018) to be of great importance to their happiness at work but assigned demands or blames towards them. One respondent states: *“Management need to make good on their [p]romises. If questionnaires are taken, management need to do something about the feedback”* (internal, stage 2, 20, 34, 18) expressing his/her demand from the leadership. It appears that a balance of the two expectancies allows for a limitation to dependence on the leadership, and also a limit towards the demands from them.

For externals and those with a balanced locus of control, the importance of ‘training’ and learning from the job is evident. However, evident in training comments from internals is the complaint of lack of training or competence of others, and their frustration of working with employees or external parties of a low calibre. One internal demand: *“More training should be given to new trainees. I feel that for the first 6 months of articles the trainees need to be solely involved in accounting before they begin working on Caseware”* (4, stage 3, 25, 42, 18). In review of shortcomings of internals (April et al., 2011), lack of trust leading to an inability to benefit from others’ strengths, and difficulties working in groups and with other people due to narcissistic behaviour possibly explain this shortcoming for the trait for optimizing happiness at work. In contrast to the above, as remarked by the employee with an external expectancy, there is a clear link in the mind of employees between learning and happiness at work: *“It[’s] great when you learn new and exciting things in your industry in order to keep your job satisfaction at bay”* (7, stage 5, 21, 38, 18). Employees with a balanced locus of control expectancy and with highest level of happiness at work in this research states: *“[I] am so grateful for being given this opportunity to work for [M&Ms]*

Pdb EL. [I] am so passionate about my job and [I] have learned so much and still do. I have the best bosses and colleagues” (balanced, stage? 30, 54, 21). Similarly, this view is shared by others of a balanced expectancy: “Regarding the field – auditing can be enjoyable as it is a field in which you challenge yourself as well as learn so much” (balanced, stage 3, 15, 33, 10). As such, the importance of personal training appears more important to those with a balanced locus of control, while working with subordinates of high calibre who are well trained seem important to internals.

Comments from internals regarding the ‘team’ also have a different tone to the comments from other expectancies. Internals are noted to be more critical or demanding of the team, and along with the comments noted regarding demands from leadership, and competence and training of colleagues, appear more demanding than other expectancies in their tone of mentioning comments that bear the same or similar theme to those with an external or a balanced locus of control expectancy. For example, statement such as: *“Need a bit more working as team, not individualism. Else, it is good and challenging” (4, stage 3, 27, 36, 16).*

In reference to ‘career’, the concerns raised relate to being placed in a department which does not fulfil the individual’s future aspirations. Due to the lack of proactivity associated with externals (Lefcourt, 1976b), the comments are only observed from employees with an internal or a balanced locus of control expectancy. Another internal states: *“I hate my job because I have to do audits 99% of the time when I am actually in the Accounting/tax department” (internal, stage 1, 14, 17, 9).* A balanced locus of control respondent states: *“[I] feel that my job lacks depth or meaning – it[’s] very administrative I get that and I was warned about it but I feel like I am not been stretched or used for my capabilities. I have much more to offer I feel! (balanced, stage 1, 11, 23, 19);* thus, highlighting the importance of a being in the right department based on their career choice and capabilities.

Complaints about ‘pay’ were notably more important to mention for internal and externals than for those with a balanced locus of control expectancy. An internal states: *“Please offer market[-]related salaries and benefits” (internal, stage 1, 29, 41, 18),* and another states: *We do not get a 13th cheque. Looking for jobs with 13th cheque” (internal, stage 2, 28, 31, 21).* Similarly, a respondent with an external locus of control expectancy states his/her wish to: *“... Receive more benefits (Pension, medical, travel claim etc.)” (external, stage 1, 20, 24, 8).* These comments are indicative of the importance of pay as a response to the work is demanded by internals, while importance of pay to externals is for fulfilling their needs as demanded from a powerful other.

Similar to pay, the attribution of happiness at work to one’s own ‘personality’ is only noted from internals and externals. However, reading between the lines of the comments, where an internal states: *“My job may not seem like much to most people but I am the type of person that believes that anything I do must be done to the best of my abilities” (internal, stage 1, 25, 48, 24)* alludes towards self-belief by using the term ‘I’, unlike an employee with external expectancy seem to state something similar but phrased as: *“Most*

times, how happy you are in your job depends on your happiness too and what you make of it” (7, stage 1, 29, 43, 24). While inconclusive, the comment seems to be acquired from learnt behaviour rather than fundamental core belief or personality trait.

8.3 Limitations of this Research

Limitation of this research are elements that should be considered when generalizing the theory to the overall population from the sample, as these elements may restrict the realizability of this research conducted (Saunders et al., 2012). For example, the data collected from a sample set is prone to theory building, rather than generalization.

Several limitations expected from the research were successfully overcome. The sample was not expected to have normal distribution of locus of control due to the academic requirements for the profession, which are said to be a strength of internals (Allen et al., 1974). The data reflected this normal distribution which ensures representation of all expectancies to the theory proposed. Furthermore, since the accounting profession is aged, there was a fear that number of departments that would fall into the categories of growth and decline leading to sample size limitations (Hyatt and Prawitt 2001). Once again, the data did not adhere to this, allowing for representation of departments in early stages of development as well, confirming that it is not just age that dictates the position of the organization on the organizational lifecycle (Adizes & Naiman, 1988). The response rate can also introduce a limitation, and yet again this research was successful in ensuring a rate that allows for reliability of the findings.

Nonetheless, this research is not without limitations. The sample chosen was of 35 departments in a big 10 accounting firm from different offices across South Africa. As such, there is a limitation of homogeneity of the sample for the study (Leedy and Ormrod 2005). The country, organization, white-collars nature of work, limited professions in the same industry, and nature of work are all limited in scope. This would limit the generalizability of the findings, and caution must be exercised when expecting similar correlations to this research in other populations.

Additionally, the design was cross-sectional and not longitudinal. While the departments are representative of any stage of development on the organizational lifecycle, the study has limitations in being representative of a department as it grows along the organizational lifecycle.

The study proposes use of self-reported data only, known to bear the limitation of problems derived from memory restrictions and perception differences. A more comprehensive design would include physical ways of measuring happiness at work, though hormonal or neuro-scans to test ‘happy chemicals’ (Nguyen, 2014), such as endorphins, and brain area activations. However, such a scope would lie more under medical science than management studies.

Human errors can occur when surveys are being completed. Despite the sample being white collar workers which are fluent in the language used for the survey, and computer literacy which should assist with completion of online questionnaires, there were instances where even the partners completing the surveys chose the wrong department, from the drop down list, when completing the organizational lifecycle questionnaire (Lester et al., 2003). While such errors in the survey completed by partners of the firm were spotted, as only one response was expected per department, which allowed for the researcher to correct the errors after subsequent communications with the partners, such errors are indicative of the fact that some employees may have made such an error as well when completing the survey regarding happiness at work and their locus of control expectancy. It is anticipated that the high response rate would allow the data to 'absorb' such errors and would not lead to incorrect correlations. Additionally, the open-ended question allowed for scope for triangulation of the department chosen in the survey. For example, one respondent stated to be a part of Audit department in comments, but had chosen the Administrative department. Such errors, though very infrequent, if found were corrected by the researcher.

Additionally, evidence of employees completing the questionnaire twice was also noted, which would lead to incorrect data points for the analysis. It is hoped that due to the sample size of this research that such instances will not distort the correlations. The statistics software, 'SPSS', was used to try highlight such instances. Same department, with similar locus of control expectancy and similar happiness at work levels were scrutinized for duplication. Furthermore, triangulation of the result with identical comments in the open-ended question allow for further identification of such duplications.

The research questioned employees about their level of happiness at work using academic, reliable and validated surveys. Such an approach is subject to "problems derived from memory restrictions and perception differences" (Leedy and Ormrod 2005). Since the study is in respect of employee perception, it is not deemed necessary to accompany this research with observational confirmations of the perceptions reported. The choices of scales that are chosen are ensured to be stable, and not materially influenced by events that may have occurred at the time of completing the survey. This would assist to ensure accuracy of data.

Nonetheless, all limitations of scope in respect of the constructs are retained by this research conducted. For example, while it is agreed that locus of control scales has 'robust theoretical underpinning' (Adeyemi-Bello, 2001), it can be argued that the time has come for the instrument to modernize in a way to embrace networked society, characterized by extensive cross-border collaborations (Lee-Kelley, 2006). Thus, the limitations in the construct measurement are not overcome by this research proposed.

In addition to research design, data analysis elements have limitations too. For quantitative analysis, Spearman Rank Order Correlation tests bear the limitation that they are less powerful than parametric methods; however, since the assumptions underlying the parametric methods of hypothesis testing are

likely not to be met, these tests are more appropriate to use, as they are less likely to give distorted results when the assumptions fail (Utts and Heckard 2007).

In respect of qualitative analysis, though this research was conducted confidentially with no information regarding the individual available to the researcher, employees are inclined to provide socially acceptable responses as they are aware that their responses will be read by a researcher, who is presumed to be academic and logical. They may not wish to reveal their real antecedents for variations in their level of happiness at work. While confidentiality was ensured, there may be fear of disclosure of their identity which could lead to repercussions (Rothwell, 1996).

Another limitation to the qualitative analysis was the lack of response to the open-ended question. There were frequent responses that stated: “no” or “none”, limiting the qualitative investigation to 53 participants.

9 Conclusions

This research tested the relationship between constructs within the concept of happiness at work and the department’s stage of development in the organizational lifecycle. The data analysis concludes that there is a weak, but statistically significant relationship between the two components of happiness at work (job engagement and job satisfaction) and the stage of development of the department on the organizational lifecycle, but no relationship for affective job commitment (Figure 12). The negative correlations entail that the further the department is along the organizational lifecycle, the less is the self-reported level of engagement and satisfaction. However, since the relationship is weak, it means that the difference in the level of job engagement and satisfaction in departments with respect to the organizational lifecycle curve is not large.

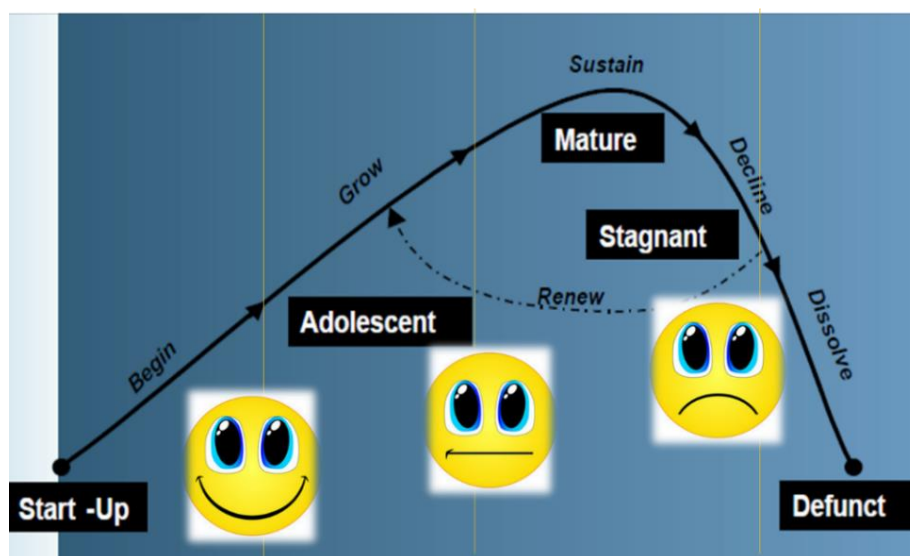


FIGURE 12: BUSINESS LIFECYCLE AND HAPPINESS AT WORK

Introducing one of the core personal evaluation traits (Judge and Bono 2001) of locus of control (Rotter, 1966) to the analysis reveals the significance levels increase to 1% level and the strength of the relationship is found to be strong for all the constructs for those with an external locus of control expectancy. A statistically significant relationship fails to exist for those with a balanced locus of control expectancy for all constructs of happiness at work and components thereof. A medium strength relationship for internals is statistically significant at 5% level for job engagement (dictated by vigor and not dedication and absorption) and job satisfaction, with no relationship for affective job commitment. As such, the role of locus of control as a moderator to the relationship is evident (Figure 13). It can be concluded that employees with a balanced locus of control expectancy are resilient to the external environment for their level of happiness at work. Those with internal expectancy are sensitive to it, particularly for their level of engagement (vigor) and job satisfaction, while externals are most dependent on the external environment for their level of happiness at work.

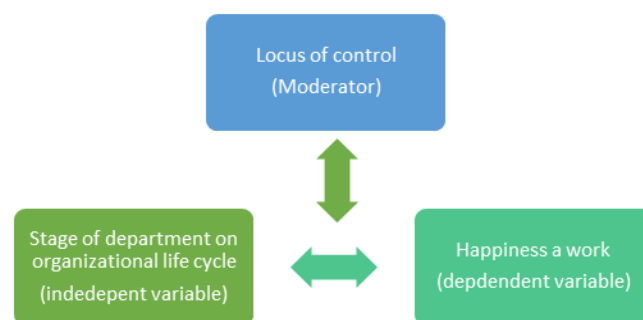


FIGURE 13: BUSINESS LIFECYCLE AND HAPPINESS AT WORK RELATIONSHIP WITH LOCUS OF CONTROL AS A MODERATOR

The above is explained as the dependency on powerful others, which smaller departments with proximity to leaders allow for a preferred environment for externals. Departments in early stages of development are also preferred by internals, as such organizational allow response to actions of their employees, which is desired to the trait of internals, and these organizations provide the opportunity to control aspects at work.

Investigating the reasons for happiness at work through survey enquiring the three most important aspects reveal eight core reasons that determine happiness at work. These are as follows, listed from most frequent reasoning to the least frequently mentioned: workload pressures, leadership influences, training and learning, joys or pains of working with the team, recognition for job performance and employees being heard, personal career progression, pay, and employee's own personality respectively. These follow the known antecedents of job satisfaction (van Saane, 2003).

Categorizing the reasons provided by respondents into responses by different expectancies reveals that recognition for work is most important to bi-locals, while career progression is most important to internals and those with a balanced locus of control expectancy. Externals in comparison with employees of other

expectancies attribute higher influence by pay and personality, as do internals to a degree, but these factors do not seem to play a vital role as self-recognized by those with balanced locus of control (**Error! Reference source not found.**).

Additionally, even when same factors were mentioned as antecedents to happiness at work by respondents, the nature of the comment varied based on the expectancy of the respondent. Workload concerns were mentioned along with positivity about the work by internals, but not from those with a balanced or external expectancy. Leadership concerns or appreciation were mentioned in different lights as well. Externals emphasise the dependence on the leadership, management or powerful others, while internals, known to bear the trait of leadership, listed demands from their leaders. Similarly, in respect of training, the comments from internals were about concerns of colleagues, sub-ordinates and external stakeholders' competence which required attention through training, while those with a balanced or external expectancy regarded training for themselves as important for their level of happiness at work.

10 Purpose of the Research

10.1 Personal Purpose

The researcher believes that “warmth, supportiveness and parental encouragement [which] seem to be essential for development of an internal locus” are prime reasons for the researcher’s highly internal locus of control expectancy (Lefcourt, 1976b, p. 100). As a secondary factor, academic success has further added to positive reinforcement (Skinner, 2009) for the researcher, which supported his internality. Nonetheless, a score of zero on the Rotter (1966) I-E scale is unusually low. None of the respondent in the study had scored a zero. High level of boredom experienced in very structured organizations, and high motivation to set-up structures in growing organizations (Hyatt and Prawitt 2001) entail that this research has personal interest in the result to try and achieve a high level of happiness at work for himself.

It is for the above reason that the researcher left large corporate environment of FedEx in a Group Finance Manager role to join an SME sized family business enterprise in the position of Finance Manager; hence, opting for a demotion for undertaking the change. The researcher experienced high levels of happiness at work, which possibly contributed to performance, leading to annual promotions to reach the position of Chief Finance Officer in five years. The researcher believes the above was due to a host of reasons; however, the need to control and enjoyment in steering the finances of a corporate (be it with the directions proposed by the Directors in Board Meetings on a quarterly basis) allowed for sufficient autonomy which was essential for being engaged with the company, job satisfaction, resulting in feeling of belonging to the organization which led to affective organizational commitment. The feeling that the organization was ‘owned’ by the researcher correlates well with research regarding entrepreneurship and internality (Kaufmann et al., 1995).

Generalizing of the theory would allow personal learning purpose to others as experienced by the researcher, while enhancing the knowledge of the core self-evaluation trait of locus of control. Moccia (2016: 144) states: “The new millennium goal is to be happy at work”. For individuals targeting happiness at work, this research can provide a tool that allows them to choose the right organization or department within an organization that bears aspects which fit well with their locus of control personality trait, which would increase the chances of being happy at work. As such, the research will contribute towards self-help and self-understanding educational material.

Career success is defined as positive psychological outcomes, or achievements, one has accumulated as a result of experiences over the span of their working life (Lau and Shaffer 1999; Judge et al. 1995) aiming at positive psychological outcomes, where an individual can live by their value systems on a day to day basis (Spranger, 1928). A correlation between a psychological trait and its optimal fit to characteristics of the stage in the organizational lifecycle can provide the working population with a tool that assists in achieving person-organization fit, or supplementary fit (Lauver and Kristof-Brown 2001) to anticipate their level of job satisfaction, job commitment, and engagement. Thus, the area of study expands into ‘self-help’, as this research can be used to solve personal problem in respect of choice of work.

10.2 Organizational Purpose

Research regarding employee happiness at work and its impact on organizations is gathering empirical evidence, leading to increased responsiveness by employees towards employee well-being. While the implications exist for all organizations, conducting the research in M&Ms, a large accounting firm, makes it particularly useful for partnerships. This is essentially due to the fact that partnerships can be regarded as multiple organizations due to the structure where each department is a separate business unit, led by a partner who is the equity holder, where employees have distinct professions, yet operate in a large global organization.

Specifically for M&M, the research compared job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and engagement in different departments. This was useful to the firm in identification of departments which required attention of the human resources department, and those that led the firm in ensuring happy employees. The managers and the partners can learn from those who scored highly on the average scores of the department for various constructs tested. For example, a low level of vigor was found to be strongly associated with workload, and improvements to work load based on planned, resource allocation and matching of workload to other aspects such as appreciation, remuneration or recognition could be used to avoid low levels of engagement or burnout.

The accounting firms have faced the problem with employee turnover for decades. The Enron scandal which led to the collapse of Arthur Andersen, and specifically in the context of South Africa, the charges against KPMG have exacerbated not only turnover, but also introduced the level of desire for entry into the profession. The problem exists highest at trainee level, where graduates join the company to train for their

professional qualifications, but exit after completion, before contributing substantially towards the earnings of the firms. Staff turnover is blamed on the similarities of the firms allowing for ease of transfer from one of the other. However, this explanation ignores the exit of employees to industry, which forms a significant portion of staff turnover. As such, this research can have a direct practical use for these firms. This approach attempts to avoid: knowledge transfer problem by gaining the knowledge at practice and offering the findings as a solution, theory and practice misalignment, and avoiding the arbitrage of the knowledge production by ensuring engaged scholarship (McKelvey, 2006; van de Ven, 2006).

Not just the accounting firms, one of the major costs faced by organizations in managing human resources is the cost of employee turnover. The benefits of retaining employees that have gone through the learning curve with the organization provide practical, first-hand knowledge of the organization that is costly to replace (Guilding, Lamminmaki, & McManus, 2014). Correlations between constructs of job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment with employee turnover are evident in research (Porter et al., 1974). The researcher hopes that an investigation into an individual's locus of control expectancy and level of happiness at work based on position in the organizational lifecycle would allow development of a tool for organizations to either recruit appropriately based on the position of the organization in the lifecycle, or allow human resources department to place employees into departments more suitably, based on the position of the department on the organizational lifecycle.

Understanding personality traits that align well with organization characteristics enhances our understanding of person-organization fit. This understanding can assist to contribute to research tackling the major problem of incapacity to work-depression. Opposite of engagement, or burnout, is seen as a form of depression; hence, directly linked to the problem being addressed by this research (Schonfeld and Bianchi 2016). Correlations between job satisfaction and depression are also evident (Steyn and Vawda 2015). As such, managing the constructs that allow for happiness at work – the constructs of job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment and engagement (Fisher, 2010) – can provide a helping hand towards the bigger problem of incapacity due to depression.

Qualitative research allowed an opportunity for the employees to express their concerns and vocalize the aspects of the organization and department that allow them to be happy. This information is useful for the firm in understanding which aspects require their attention in respect of affect at work. Additionally, the opportunity to express allows for 'venting' of concerns which is expected to improve the levels of happiness in the organization, and allow an 'ice-breaker' for discussion on the subject. The authorization of the research also allows employees to recognize that their happiness at work is of importance to the leaders of the organization.

10.3 Academic Purpose

Theory building is said to be: "important for advancing of knowledge of management. But it is also a highly challenging task" (Shepherd and Suddaby 2016, p.1). Theoretical contribution is the extent that a

theory bridges a gap between two theories, or generates new insights of existing theories (Bacharach, 1989); hence, highlighting the need for the outcome to be novel and useful (Corley and Gioia 2011).

The researcher has posed a problem statement, making conjunctures on a possible link between the problem and job-organization fit due to misalignment of locus of control to the position of the organization in the business lifecycle to build on a theory. As such, the theory building approach is one of a ‘thought experiment’, whose value is occurs in creative experimentation to produce novel theory (Davis, Eisenhardt, & Bingham, 2007).

Adizes Business Lifecycle (Adizes, 2017) addresses the personality characteristics required at each stage of the organization, and those essential for moving an organization from one stage to the other. While the characteristics sound similar to those associated with internality, balanced locus of control expectancy (April et al., 2012), and externality (Cherlin and Bourque 1974), a confirmation through correlation study conducted allowed for theoretical contribution to the organizational lifecycle by ‘complexification’, in respect of adding a construct to the model that is high endurance and high exclusivity, hence level one according to Shepherd and Suddaby (2017).

The researcher believes that while each individual in any society seeks happiness, the clarity, consensus and understanding of the topic is abysmal. Conflict in literature has highlighted the need to rethink and review existing theories for a new combination of construct to contribute the larger idea. Fisher (2010) has proposed the combination of job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment and engagement after her review on the subject of happiness at work; hence, identifying the core constructs, or ‘main characters’ for this research (Shepherd and Suddaby 2016, p.7). Testing the proposed notion of the three constructs as collectively contributing to the concept of happiness at work would allow the researcher to test Fisher’s (2010) proposition, allowing an opportunity to join the conversation on the subject.

The literature of locus of control is brim-full with appreciation of internality as the optimal trait in many aspects of life and organization (Lee-Kelley, 2006). The challenge to this has been introduced increasingly, but by comparatively fewer scholars (Hyatt and Prawitt 2001; April et al. 2011). This research can potentially add to the literature challenging the traditional notion on the subject, reinforcing the concept of a balanced locus of control expectancy (April et al., 2012)

The above can assist in theoretically challenging the linearity assumption of the locus of control scale. With similarities to ‘pragmatic empirical theorizing’ (Shepherd and Suddaby 2016, p.20 citing Charles Saunders Pierce 1958), since the scale is seen as combination of two linear scales by April et al. (2012) in the context of subjective well-being (Diener et al., 1999), the challenge to the linearity can be explored further from the study proposed to review the challenge in the context of happiness at work to explore the middle-ground – the bi-locals, shared responsibility, or a balanced locus of control.

11Future Research

As highlighted in the limitations to the research, there is a limitation of homogeneity of the sample for the study (Leedy and Ormrod 2005). The country, organization, white collars nature of work, limited professions in the same industry, and nature of are all limited in scope. The research can be conducted in alternative countries, industries, professions, and organizations to allow for greater generalization of the theory proposed in this research (Peshkin, 1993).

The variability of happiness at work for different departments in this research within the organization was substantial. As shown in figure, the highest ranked for happiness at work amongst all the departments was Port Elizabeth office’s in-house team, while the second lowest ranked for the entire organization was also Port Elizabeth office field audit, followed closely by accounting and tax departments at the same office. This challenges the notion that happiness at work can be calculated as means or medians of a large group of people at the same office location, let alone at an organizational level that may consist of many locations (Totterdell et al., 1998). One research participant in this research states: *“In an Audit firm the department manager determines the mood”* (internal, stage 1, 24, 49, 24), highlighting that some vital drivers of happiness at work are potentially closer to the employee than at an organizational level. Since happiness of a group of people is calculated using averages of happiness of the members of the group, research into group size that accurately allows for generalization of the level of happiness of a group of people needs further investigation (Mason & Griffin, 2005). As stated by Ashkanasy (citing Blanchflower & Oswald, 2011) in his conclusion, highlighting that due to the complexity of the concept: “Yes, we do need an interdisciplinary approach, but let’s not forget levels of analysis”, emphasizing the possible foundational concern of group level of happiness. Alternatively, there exists a scope for creating a different measures for unit level happiness than averages of personal level of happiness at work of those in the group (Totterdell, 2000).

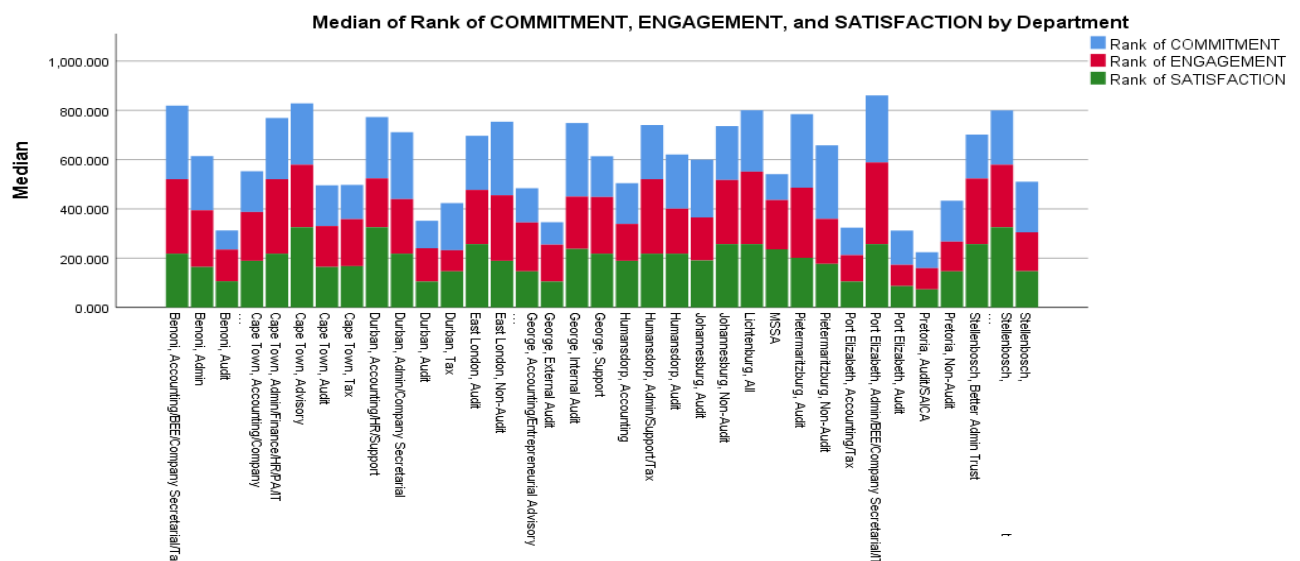


FIGURE 14: BAR GRAPH OF CONSTRUCTS OF HAPPINESS AT WORK BY DEPARTMENT.

While correlation tests can be conducted between locus of control and each of the constructs based on Fisher's (2010) proposed the use of: job satisfaction, commitment and engagement, testing the proposed notion of the three constructs as collectively contributing to the concept of happiness at work by combining the constructs that lead to best correlation based on the weighting of the dimensions can be explored in further research enable multiple patterns (typologies) (Fiss, 2011). Weighting for each variable can possibly be calculated using the modelling process on specialist computer software that allows for closest correlation to be generated using variable weightings on each variable identified calculation of happiness at work. Data modelling is said to: "focus on the establishing correspondence between organization of the data in databases and concepts for which the data is being stored" (Dillon, Chang, Hadzic, & Wongthongtham, 2008). This presents the potential researcher with an ambitious, multi-organizational, and possibly longitudinal study to discover a possible way of combining different facets of happiness at work in a meaningful manner so as to develop a single measure for happiness at work capacity (Dr. K. Ramaboa, 5 February 2019, Personal Interview).

The qualitative analysis in this research conducted presents an inductive study (Lind and Goldkuhl 2007) of the reasons why internals are happier in departments that are in early stages of development and proposes that these reasons are different from those stated by externals for their preference of departments in early stages of the organizational lifecycle also. The inductive study, though conducted with qualitative rigor (Gioia, Corley, & Hamilton, 2013), requires a further deductive study using quantitative method to conclude the findings of this research using statistical analysis the findings of this research.

In addition to the internal and external locus of control expectancy, the concept of dual control, or what is called "shared responsibility", is described as a balance of externality and internality (Torun and April 2006). How these expectancies coexist is not completely understood, but it can be expected that a combination of internal and external expectancies that exist in different situations can lead to a generalised expectancy that is balanced. For example, a belief that health is a consequence of one's own lifestyle choices (an internal health locus of control expectancy (Wallston et al., 1978)), while career success as subject to a host of complex interactions (externality in work locus of control expectancy (Spector, 1988)) is one way in which a generalized locus of control expectancy would be balanced (April et al., 2012). This research conducted highlights a 'special position' between the two expectancies that does not correlate to happiness at work due to external factors arising from 'position' of the department in the organizational lifecycle. Further research into what allows such 'immunity' of one's happiness at work from the environment deserves investigation.

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13Appendix

13.1 Organizational Lifecycle: A 5 Stage Empirical Scale (Lester et al., 2003)

Changed tracked and reviewed by Dr. Don Lester (personal communication, June 2 and 7, 2018) and Dr. Parnell (Personal communication 29 May 2018)

Scale of 1 to 5. (1) Strongly disagree. (2) disagree. (3) neutral. (4) agree, and (5) strongly agree.

Department Size

- Our ~~department organization~~ is small, both in size and relative to ~~our competitors~~other departments in the firm. (Stage 1)
- As a ~~firm~~department, we are larger than most of ~~our competitors~~other departments in the organization, but not as large as we could be. (Stage 3)
- We are a widely dispersed ~~organization~~department, with a board ~~for decision making of directors and shareholders~~. (Stage 4)

Power

- The seat of power in our ~~firm~~department is primarily in the hands of ~~the founder~~me. (Stage 1)
- Power in our ~~firm~~department is spread among a group of several ~~owners/investors~~partners. (Stage 2)
- Power in our ~~firm~~department is concentrated in our vast number of ~~shareholders~~partners. (Stage 3)

Organizational structure

- Our ~~firm's~~department organizational structure could best be described as simple. (Stage 1)
- Our structure is ~~department based and~~ functional, becoming much more formal. (Stage 3)
- Structure in our ~~firm~~department is divisional or matrix in nature, with highly sophisticated control systems. (Stage 4)
- Our structure is centralized with few control systems. (Stage 5)
- In our ~~organization~~department, we have some specialization (~~accountants and possibly engineers, e.g.~~) and we are becoming somewhat differentiated. (Stage 2)

Information processing

- Information processing could best be described as simple, mostly word-of-mouth. (Stage 1)
- Information processing is best described as monitoring performance and facilitating communication between departments. (Stage 2)
- Information processing is sophisticated and necessary for efficient production and earning adequate profits. (Stage 3)
- Information processing is very complex, used for coordinating of diverse activities to better serve markets. (Stage 4)
- Information processing is not very sophisticated, but badly needed. (Stage 5)

Decision making

- Decision making is centralized at the top of the ~~organization~~department and considered to be not very complex. (Stage 5)
- Most decisions in our ~~firm~~department are made by a group of ~~managers~~partners who utilize systematic analysis, but who are still fairly bold. (Stage 2)
- Most decisions in our ~~firm~~department are made by managers, task forces, and project teams who are trying to facilitate growth through participation. (Stage 4)
- Most decisions in our ~~firm~~department are made by a few managers who take a conservative, internally political approach. (Stage 5)

13.2 Questionnaire to the Employees of the Departments:

Please provide name and location of the department: _____

Please confirm if you have been with the department for over 6 months (half a year).

13.2.1 Locus of Control (Rotter, 1966)

Please select one statement of each pair which you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you are concerned. In some cases, you may discover that you believe both statements or neither one to be true. In such cases, please select the one you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you're concerned. Be sure to select the one you actually believe to be truer than the one you think you should choose or the one you would like to be true. This is a matter of personal belief; obviously there is no right or wrong answer.

1. ☐ One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.
 ☐ There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.
2. ☐ The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense.
 ☐ Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.
3. ☐ I have often found that what is going to happen, will happen.
 ☐ Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.
4. ☐ In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test.
 ☐ Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is often useless.
5. ☐ Becoming a success is a matter of hard work. Luck has little or nothing to do with it.
 ☐ Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.
6. ☐ The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions.
 ☐ This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it.
7. ☒ In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.
 ☐ Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.
8. ☐ Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.
 ☐ Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability, and luck has little or nothing to do with it.
9. ☐ As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand, nor control.
 ☐ By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events.
10. ☐ Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.
 ☐ There really is no such thing as "luck."
11. ☐ Most of the time I can't understand why politicians behave the way they do.
 ☐ In the long run the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well as on a local level.

13.2.2 Happiness at Work (Fisher, 2010)

13.2.2.1 Abridged Job in General Scale (Ironson et al., 1989; S. S. Russell et al., 2004)

Think of your job in general. All in all, what is it like most of the time? In the blank beside each word or phrase below, write:

Y for "Yes" if it describes your job (score 3, R score 0)

N for "No" if it does not describe it (score 0, R score 3)

? for "?" if you cannot decide (score 1, R score 1)

- Good
- Undesirable (R)
- Better than most
- Disagreeable (R)
- Makes me content
- Excellent
- Enjoyable
- Poor (R)

13.2.2.2 Job Commitment (Meyer et al., 1993)

Interval measure: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly agree

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this [organization/department](#).
2. I really feel as if this [organization's department's](#) problems are my own.
3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my [organization/department](#). (R)
4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this [organization/department](#). (R)
5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my [organization/department](#). (R)
6. This [organization-department](#) has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

13.2.2.3 Job Engagement (Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli and Bakker 2003; Seppälä et al. 2009))

0 Never; Almost never 1 - A few times a year or less; Rarely 2 - Once a month or less; Sometimes 3 - A few times a month; Often 4 - Once a week; Very often 5 - A few times a week; Always 6 - Every day

Changes tracked relate to abbreviation of the questionnaire (Seppälä et al., 2009).

VI- Vigor, DE- Dedication, AB-Absorption

1. At my work, I feel that I am bursting with energy (VI#1)
- ~~2. I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose (DE1)~~
- ~~3. Time flies when I'm working (AB1)~~
- ~~4.2.~~ At my job, I feel strong and vigorous (VI#2)
- ~~5.3.~~ I am enthusiastic about my job (DE#2)
- ~~6. When I am working, I forget everything else around me (AB2)~~
- ~~7.4.~~ My job inspires me (DE#3)*
- ~~8.5.~~ When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work (VI#3)
- ~~9.6.~~ I feel happy when I am working intensely (AB#3)
- ~~10.7.~~ I am proud of the work that I do (DE#4)
- ~~11.8.~~ I am immersed in my work (AB#4)
- ~~12. I can continue working for very long periods at a time (VI4)~~
- ~~13. To me, my job is challenging (DE5)~~
- ~~14.9.~~ I get carried away when I'm working (AB#5)
- ~~15. At my job, I am very resilient, mentally (VI5)~~
- ~~16. It is difficult to detach myself from my job (AB6)~~
- ~~17.10.~~ At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well (VI6)